HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

BOURNE AND BENTON

D. C. HEATH & CO.

MAP OF THE WORLD
SHOWING
UNITED STATES
AND ITS POSSESSIONS

United States Possessions in Red

Scale of Miles on the Equator
0 1000 2000 3000 4000

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 24

Margaret Bethlehem 135 Main

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

BY

HENRY ELDRIDGE BOURNE

AND

ELBERT JAY BENTON

PROFESSORS OF HISTORY IN WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY

BOSTON NEW YORK CHICAGO

BY BOURNE AND BENTON

INTRODUCTORY AMERICAN HISTORY

Presents the course recommended for the sixth grade by the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association. Cloth. 271 pages. Maps and illustrations.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

Gives prominence to the life and industries of the people, and to the development of the nation. Cloth. 598 pages. Maps and illustrations.

D. C. HEATH & CO., PUBLISHERS

COPYRIGHT, 1913, BY
D. C. HEATH & COMPANY

1 G 7

PREFACE

THIS textbook is based on the plan of study recommended for the seventh and eighth grades by the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association. The work for the sixth grade has been given in a shorter book, entitled *Introductory American History*. About two-thirds of that book concern the beginnings in Great Britain and Europe of the civilization which the people of the United States share with other peoples of European race. The remainder contains descriptions of the discoveries and early settlements of America, principally in the sixteenth century. This volume for the upper grades opens with a chapter which repeats briefly the story of early discovery and settlement. The chapter may be used as a review in those schools which use the *Introductory American History*. Teachers who do not use that book will find in the chapter the essential facts of the period.

American history is so rich and varied that the most serious question which confronts the authors of a textbook is that of selection and emphasis. If space is to be found for adequate treatment of the most characteristic features of our national development, especially of those within the comprehension of the pupil of the seventh or eighth grade, certain phases of the political and military history of the country must be reserved for later study.

The two great facts which the authors have emphasized in order to give unity to their treatment are (1) the migration of people from many different nations to America, and (2) the westward movement in America. Another fact emphasized is the effort of the settlers to reproduce in this country the ways of living to which they were accustomed at home. Their success in organizing civilized life over so vast an area in three or four centuries has been a work the magnitude of which may well awaken the interest of every pupil.

The geographical setting of American history has been kept constantly in mind. The pupil should be made to realize the importance of geographical facts in the development of civilization and especially in the history of the United States. He has been studying geography for several years and should discover that his work

is of immediate utility in the study of a kindred subject. Certain great movements, like the Revolutionary War and the Civil War, cannot be understood without an appreciation of their geographical setting. Geography and chronology have been called "the two eyes of history," but date lists are often emphasized far more than geographical conditions. In the Civil War the geographical features of Virginia and of the Mississippi Valley were determining factors, and were always noted by the leaders. It is obvious that such facts must form the basis of the class-room study of the war. What is true of that war is equally true of other movements. The teacher will note the emphasis upon geographical facts in chapter iii, Exploring the Mississippi Valley; chapter viii, Dutch and English Rivalries; chapter x, The French Rivals, as well as in the chapters on the wars.

In selecting the characteristic incidents which should be described the authors have again kept in mind the experience of the pupil. Only the simpler features of political institutions and controversies have been touched, while special attention has been given to occupations, industry, trade, manners, and customs.

The European background, that is, the history of Great Britain and Europe, has been explained whenever it furnishes a key to an understanding of events in America which were the direct outgrowth of events in the Old World. The point of view is American and the amount of European history included is necessarily small. The teacher can readily supplement what is contained in the text.

The appendix gives a summary of the principal political events, with the names of Presidents and Vice-Presidents, and of defeated candidates for the Presidency, the dates of the admission of states, with their area and population. Tables of statistics are included, showing the rapid growth of the states and the development of industry and trade.

The bibliographical lists at the close contain references which the teachers may use in guiding the reading of the pupils. A much longer list might have been given, but care has been exercised to make the list serviceable.

The authors wish to express their thanks to those who have aided them with helpful criticisms.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I	Discoverers and Explorers	1
II	Gaining a Foothold on the Atlantic Shore	17
III	Exploring the Mississippi Valley	27
IV	The Founding of Virginia	39
V	The Exiles for Conscience Sake at Plymouth	49
VI	The Beginnings of New England	59
VII	Maryland, A Refuge for English Catholics	71
VIII	Dutch and English Rivalries: Beginnings of a Great State	77
IX	A Second Great Emigration	87
X	The French Rivals	99
XI	The Making of New Frontiers	111
XII	How the Colonists Lived	121
XIII	How the Colonies Were Governed	139
XIV	Conquest of the French Colonies in America	148
XV	Why the English Colonists Became Revolutionists	164
XVI	The Outbreak of War	178
XVII	The Birth of a New Nation	189
XVIII	Life in War Time	203
XIX	How the French Helped the Colonists	213
XX	The Difficulties of the New Republic	225
XXI	Starting the New Government	238
XXII	The United States and Europe	250
XXIII	Rule of Jefferson: A New West	263
XXIV	The United States and the Napoleonic Wars	276
XXV	The War of 1812	286
XXVI	New Work and New Routes	297
XXVII	The March of Population Westward	310
XXVIII	Government by the People	323
XXIX	Problems of the New Democracy	331
XXX	Neighboring Countries Bring on New Questions	345
XXXI	How the United States Won the Pacific Coast	354

CHAPTER		PAGE
XXXII	A Great Domain, New Tools, and Willing Hands	363
XXXIII	The Question of Slavery	376
XXXIV	A Divided Nation	390
XXXV	The Beginning of Civil War	400
XXXVI	Story of Victory and Defeat	412
XXXVII	Conquering a Peace	425
XXXVIII	Peace and its Problems	433
XXXIX	Neighbors and Rivals	446
XL	The Prairie States	454
XLI	New Methods of Working	463
XLII	The New South	475
XLIII	The Last Barriers	483
XLIV	Laborers of a Great Nation	491
XLV	New Methods of Government	500
XLVI	The New Education	513
XLVII	The Republic and the Larger World	522

Appendix

Chronological Summary of American Political History	i
Population at the Beginning of the Period of Independence	x
Area and Population of the States and Territories	x
Population of the United States by Races	xii
Place of Birth of Present Population	xii
Cities of the United States with Population over 200,000	xii
Population of Countries of Europe	xiii
Progress of Education	xiv
Waste of Wealth in the United States	xiv
Table Showing Industrial Progress of the United States	xv
References for Teachers	xvi
Declaration of Independence	xxxiii
Constitution of the United States	xxxvi
Index	xlix

LIST OF MAPS

PAGE

Map of the World, showing the United States and its Possessions *cover page 2*

A Globe made before Columbus Discovered America 4

Map of the New World 6

The New World according to a Map-Maker of 1540 9

Map showing Five Famous Voyages of Exploration 15

Supposed Extent of North America 17

Parts of North America Occupied or Explored, about 1650 . . 25

The Great Mountain Barrier back of the English Settlements 27

Map showing Natural Features and Native Tribes of the United States . . . . . *between* 30 *and* 31

Map of La Salle's Explorations 36

Map of Virginia 40

Captain John Smith's Map of New England 53

Plymouth Harbor 54

Country about Massachusetts Bay 62

Country about Narragansett Bay 64

New England in the Seventeenth Century 67

Early Settlements in Maryland 73

New Netherland in 1655 — According to the Dutch 81

West Indies 88

The Middle Colonies 92

The Carolina Coast 95

Charleston Harbor 96

Map of Portages in New France and the Illinois Country . . . 107

Where the German and Scotch-Irish Emigrants Settled . . . 114

Settlements in Georgia 118

Eastern North America at the Beginning of the French and Indian War 149

The Ohio Country and the New French Forts 151

Route of Braddock's Expedition 155

The British Territory in 1763 161

Boston, Bunker Hill, and Charlestown 183

Reference Map for the Revolution — Northern and Middle States *facing* 196

PAGE

New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania 198
Mountain Trails and the Western Country 208
Reference Map for the Revolution — Southern States *facing* 218
Cornwallis's Wandering Campaign at the South 219
Our Country in 1783 225
Land Claims of the Thirteen Original States . . . . *facing* 232
The Northwest Territory after Wayne's Victory 247
The Louisiana Purchase 267
Lewis and Clark's Route 270
The United States in 1810–12 . . . . . *facing* 272
Pike's Route 273
Europe at the Height of Napoleon's Power 284
Lake Erie and the Surrounding Country 288
Route of the National Road, 1812–1840 305
Map of the Erie Canal 307
The United States in 1820, showing the Missouri Compromise . . . 317
The United States in 1825 . . . . . *between* 322 *and* 323
Map showing the Disputed Boundary of Maine 333
The Republic of Texas 347
The Principal Western Trails 350
The Oregon Compromise 356
Map of the Mexican War 357
Territory acquired from Mexico as the Result of the War *facing* 358
Railroads in Operation in the Northern States in 1860 364
Territories from which Kansas and Nebraska were erected . . . 382
The United States in 1861 . . . . . *facing* 392
Map of Forts in Charleston Harbor 395
Railroads and Navigable Waterways of the South, 1861 . . . 401
Map of Campaigns in Virginia 408
The Line of Defense in January, 1862 412
Reference Map for the Civil War, 1861–1865 . . *between* 414 *and* 415
The United States, Canada, and Mexico 449
Territorial Growth of the United States, 1783–1867 *between* 450 *and* 451
Principal Railroads West of the Mississippi in 1884 454
The Cross-Roads of the Pacific 525
Relief Map of the Panama Canal 527
Map showing the Effect of the Panama Canal on Trade Routes . 528
Map of the United States and its Possessions . . . *cover page* 3

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER I

DISCOVERERS AND EXPLORERS

The Work of Three Centuries.—Three hundred years ago the whole of the United States was forest, prairie, and desert, the haunt of wild animals and Indians. Today nearly the whole country is settled. Highways and railroads extend in all directions. Farms and factories, schools and churches, libraries and theatres are found everywhere. What a great work to have been done in that time! If it had meant just cutting down trees, building houses, clearing the fields for crops, and making roads, that would have been a task big enough, but that is only a small part of what has been done. The settlers wanted to live as their fathers had lived in England and on the Continent. This meant more work. As new inventions were made, or better ways of living were found, either in Europe or America, these were carried wherever the settlers went. All this work has been done not only by the early settlers, their children, and their children's children, but also by later emigrants.[1]

[1] The word "emigrants," rather than "immigrants," is used here and in the chapters which follow as long as the principal thought is movement from Europe to America. When the colonies become the United States, the point of view is reversed. In treating the later movements from Europe, therefore, the word "immigrants" will be used.

What the Early Settlers had and what they did not have. — The earlier settlers might have done some of their work more rapidly if they had had the machines which men have since learned to make, like the steam shovel, the locomotive, and the electric motor. But they were much better off than the Indians that they found in America. Their ships were strong enough to withstand the storms of the Atlantic. They could fight against their enemies with guns and cannon. They had also many good tools which they had learned to use in their European homes. They not only understood how to fight better than the Indians, but they had also learned to govern themselves wisely, and had brought with them many just laws and excellent customs. To understand just what sort of people they were, it is necessary to study the history of the countries from which they came. Some of the things which they knew they owed to the Greeks and the Romans, who lived in Ancient Times.[1] Others they owed to the men of the Middle Ages in England, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain.

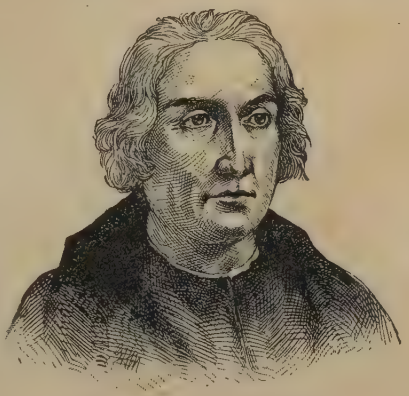
Three Great Discoveries. — The earliest period in American history is commonly called the Period of Discovery. It is not necessary to describe in detail the events of that period; it will be enough to state briefly the main facts.[2] The most important voyages of that period were made by Bartholomew Diaz, Christopher Columbus, and Ferdinand Magellan. All three were in search of a route to the Indies, the Golden East about which Marco Polo, a Venetian traveler, had told the world. Europeans had usually obtained from the Venetians the spices, drugs, and silks of India, China, and of the islands off the coast of Asia. The Venetians purchased them

[1] Ancient Times include the early history of Europe down to the fall of the Roman Empire about 400 A.D. The Middle Ages follow down to the time of Columbus.

[2] See *Introductory American History* for a fuller account of the discoveries and of the events which led to them.

in the eastern Mediterranean, at ports where the ancient caravan routes from the East ended. In the time of Columbus it was becoming dangerous, on account of the wars, to bring eastern goods overland, and all the bolder sailors were eager to find a sea route to the Indies.

Bartholomew Diaz. — Diaz was a Portuguese captain. Many Portuguese before him had attempted to go far enough down the coast of Africa to find the southern point, and, passing it, turn northward again toward India. He was successful in 1487, although he did not reach India. As he had shown the way, another Portuguese captain, Vasco da Gama, eleven years later reached India and brought back to Portugal a rich cargo of spices.

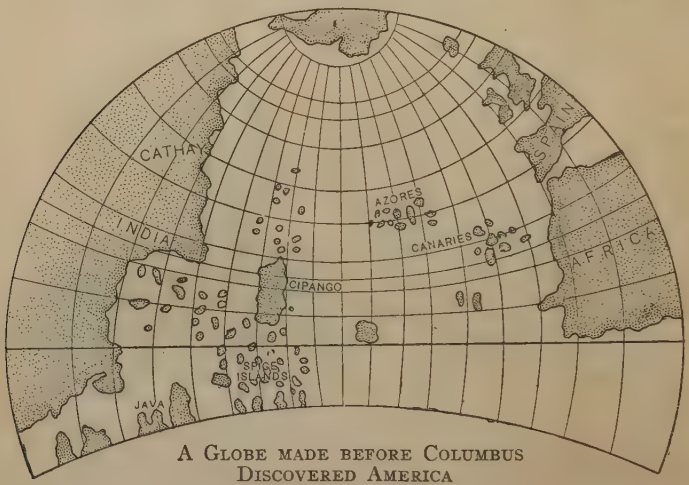


CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

Christopher Columbus. — Meanwhile Columbus, a Genoese sailor, who had once been in the service of Portugal, but now was in the service of Spain, formed a still more venturesome plan. He believed that he could find his way to spice-bearing islands, and even to the coasts of China and Japan, by sailing westward across the Atlantic. Many sailors in those days feared the Atlantic as a "Sea of Darkness" full of dreadful monsters, but Columbus had been on voyages with the great sea-captains of Genoa and Portugal, and no longer dreaded to go far out of sight of land.

A Famous Voyage. — With three small ships Columbus left Spain on August 3, 1492. He visited the Canary Islands, and on September 6 turned the prows of his ships due west into the wide and unknown Atlantic. Columbus thought

the earth smaller than it really is, and therefore that a voyage to the coast of Asia would be short. He also imagined that the Atlantic would contain many islands which he would find on the voyage. At first all went well, for the winds blew steadily from the east, wafting the ships along. But as the days passed, the sailors began to wonder how they



A Globe made before Columbus Discovered America

This globe was made in Nuremberg in 1492, and is still preserved. It shows the Atlantic Ocean as Columbus thought of it

could return against those winds. Columbus sometimes had great difficulty in keeping them from open mutiny. For nearly five weeks he kept sailing westward. He encouraged the sailors by promises of a prize to the one who should first see land. Signs of land finally appeared, and on October 12 a small island was discovered. Columbus named it San Salvador. It was probably the present Watling Island. Columbus soon found many islands on every side. When he came upon a large body of land which the Indians called Cuba, he sent two messengers to search for the emperor of China, who, he thought, must live near. He was bitterly

disappointed when they found neither an emperor, nor cities, nor gold, nor even spices.

Misfortunes of Columbus. — However, when Columbus returned to Spain he was received with great rejoicing and was honored by the king and queen. He made three other voyages to America, discovering other islands in the West Indies and parts of the coast of South and Central America.

CARAVELS OF COLUMBUS

After the model shown at the Columbian Exposition, Chicago, 1893

As he failed to gain great riches for himself or his followers, he became unpopular. Once he was taken back to Spain in chains like a common prisoner. Though his last days were saddened by misfortune, every one now regards him as the greatest of the discoverers. He had done more than start the search for another way to India — he had also started the exploration of a New World.

Discovery of the South Sea. — In 1513, seven years after the death of Columbus, a Spanish planter, named Balboa, discovered the Pacific Ocean, which Columbus had not even seen. Balboa and his followers marched from the shore of the Caribbean Sea through the dense forests of the Isthmus

of Panama, taking twenty-two days to go forty-five miles. From the hill-tops they finally discovered a vast sea stretching south and west. Balboa called it the South Sea, and this name was much used. The ocean which Balboa saw, Magellan soon afterward crossed.

MAP OF THE NEW WORLD
Made after the discoveries of Columbus and Balboa

Ferdinand Magellan. — Magellan was a Portuguese like Diaz and Da Gama, but like Columbus he had entered the service of the king of Spain. His object was to find a route to the Indies past the great continent which lay across the way that Columbus had chosen. The Portuguese were already trading not only in India, but also in the Spice Islands, and Magellan became familiar with that region while in their service. He sailed from Spain in 1519 with five ships, and spent a year in searching the coast of South America for a passage into the ocean on the other side. At last he made his way through the strait since named for him, the Strait of Magellan, and sailed out into the Pacific or Peaceful Sea. His task was now to cross the Pacific, which was wider

than he supposed. He succeeded, although his men suffered terribly before they reached the Ladrone Islands, where they obtained a supply of food. Soon afterward he reached the Philippines, but was killed in a fight with the natives. One of his ships found its way back to Spain by sailing around the Cape of Good Hope. Although Magellan died before the voyage was ended, the fame and honor of having sailed around the world, and having proved that America is not a part of Asia, but separated from it by a great ocean, belongs to him. The route to the Indies which he discovered was, however, not as convenient as that followed by Diaz and Da Gama.

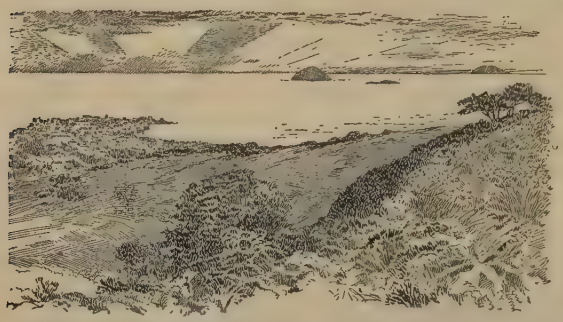
MAGELLAN MONUMENT ON MACTÁN ISLAND

This monument marks the spot where Magellan was killed in a battle with the natives of the Philippine Islands

The Naming of America. — It seems strange that America was not named for Columbus. A great river, many cities in the United States, the District of Columbia, in which Washington is situated, and a country in South America, called the United States of Colombia, are named for him, but the American continents were named for another explorer, Americus Vespucius. Americus wrote about his discoveries much more than Columbus did. The people of the day either did not know what Columbus had done, or had forgotten it. One of them who was writing a geography suggested that the new lands be named for Americus. This was copied from one geography into another until everybody began to call the new continents America.

A Passage to the South Sea. — When the early voyagers learned that America was not merely a group of islands off

the coast of Asia, they wished to explore it, partly to find a passage to the South Sea nearer than the Strait of Magellan, and partly to find gold, silver, precious stones, and other treasures which they heard about continually. Some of these explorers accomplished great things, while others were disappointed.



View of the "South Sea" from Panama

Cortés, Conqueror of Mexico. — Two explorers were also conquerors. They were Cortés and Pizarro. A chief named Montezuma reigned in Mexico at that time over a people called the Aztecs. Montezuma had treasures of silver and gold in the city of Mexico, and these Cortés undertook to capture. After fighting for two years he was victorious. He then ruled over the country in the name of the Spanish king.

Pizarro, Conqueror of Peru. — Pizarro did in Peru what Cortés had done in Mexico. The booty which the Spaniards seized in Peru was greater than they found in Mexico, amounting to nearly seven million dollars in gold, besides a great quantity of silver. The mines of Peru, as well as of Mexico, were very rich, and the Spaniards were able to send silver and gold home to Spain.

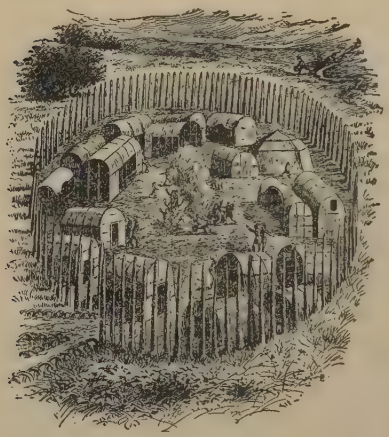
De Soto, Discoverer of the Mississippi. — Two other Spanish leaders were not so successful. They were De Soto, the governor of Cuba, and Coronado, a friend of the viceroy, or governor, of Mexico. In 1539 De Soto crossed over from Cuba to Florida, which was also a part of his dominions. He had heard tales of a country rich in gold mines, whose king

was sprinkled every morning with powdered gold, and he brought together a large band of followers in order to search for this Gilded Man or *El Dorado*. The army wandered for four years, much of the time in a half-starved condition, over a region now lying within eight southern states. They treated

THE NEW WORLD ACCORDING TO A MAP-MAKER OF 1540

the Indians cruelly and were repeatedly attacked by them. In these battles the Spaniards lost most of their baggage. It became necessary for them to use the skins of wild animals for clothing. Finally they discovered a great river which the Indians called the Mississippi. For another year the explorers wandered west of the Mississippi through the almost endless forests and swamps now within Arkansas. Here, worn out by hardships and ill with malarial fever, De Soto died, and was buried secretly in the waters of the Mississippi. His followers were afraid that the Indians, if they

knew of the death of the leader, would murder the whole band. The explorers sought in vain for rich treasures such as Cortés had found in Mexico and Pizarro in Peru. Scarcely half of the original six hundred survived. The remnant of the once fine army built boats and floated down the Mississippi and found their way to Mexico.



Palisaded Indian Village

Coronado, Explorer of the Southwest. — Coronado and De Soto at one time nearly met on the plains west of the Mississippi. Coronado started in 1540 from western Mexico, near the Gulf of California. He planned to find the Seven Cities of Cibola, which he hoped would be as full of rich booty as Mexico or Peru. But the Seven Cities of Cibola existed only in the imagination of the Spaniards, who believed that centuries before seven Spanish bishops, fleeing before their heathen enemies, had crossed the ocean and built seven great cities. The only cities that Coronado found were the pueblos of the Indians — groups of houses made of stone and sun-dried clay. Coronado's army did not give up its search until it reached the region now included in Kansas. This was in 1541, when De Soto was distant only nine days' march. They then turned back, a sadly disappointed band of men.

St. Augustine, the Oldest Town in the United States. — None of Coronado's or De Soto's followers cared to settle in the lands which they had explored. They had not found that for which they were looking. The principal Spanish settle-

ments for many years were in Mexico, Peru, and Cuba. About twenty years after De Soto's expedition the Spanish king sent Menendez to Florida to found settlements. In order to succeed he was obliged to drive away the French, who had recently built a fort near the mouth of the St. John's River. Menendez had another reason for attacking them; he was a Roman Catholic and they were Protestants. Most Frenchmen were Catholics, but these men were Protestants. In those days Catholics and Protestants could not live peaceably together. The French called the settlement Fort Caroline,[1] after the king who reigned in France. In the battles which took place Menendez was successful, and he either killed or drove away all the French. The settlement which he founded in 1565 was called St. Augustine, and it is the oldest town in the United States.

The Old City Gate at St. Augustine

Spanish Emigrants and Indians. — The king of Spain did not encourage his people to cross the Atlantic to his new lands, and the result was that the settlements grew slowly. But by the year 1600 about 200,000 Spaniards were living in America. Besides, there were 5,000,000 Indians on the mainland, many of whom they had taught to live like Christian

[1] Named for King Charles, whose name in Latin was Carolus.

men and women. Many of these Indians were gathered in villages or "missions," where they were taught by priests or monks. Unfortunately, most of the Indians in the islands of the West Indies soon died from disease and from the hard work which the early Spanish planters and gold-seekers had compelled them to do. To take their places the Spaniards had begun to carry negro slaves over from Africa.

THE LACHINE RAPIDS OF THE ST. LAWRENCE

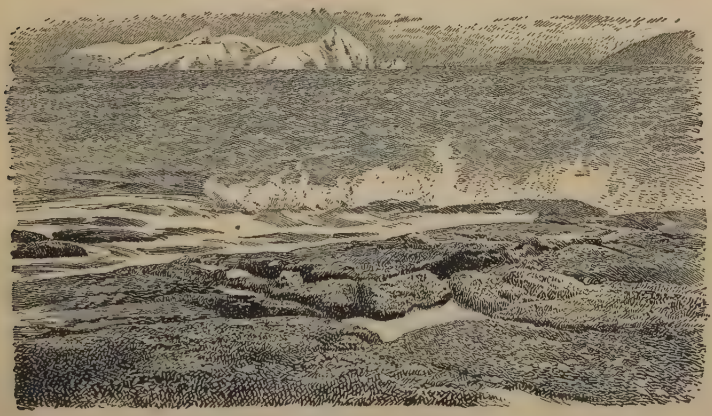
The rapids which stopped Cartier's voyage and convinced him that the St. Lawrence was not a passage way through to the Pacific Ocean

First French Attempts at Settlement. — Fort Caroline was not the only settlement that the French had attempted to make. Thirty years earlier, in 1534, Jacques Cartier had explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence and found the St. Lawrence River. In the following year he sailed nearly 400 miles up the great river until the Lachine or China Rapids blocked his way. Six years later he returned with a band of settlers, but the intense cold and danger from the Indians made them anxious to return to France. So the colony was given up.

First English Attempts. — The English had also tried to make settlements in America. In 1497, while Columbus was still living, John Cabot, another Italian, obtained a ship

from the English king and sailed westward across the stormy North Atlantic. He reached the coast of North America, but just where is not known, except that it was in the region of Nova Scotia or Labrador. For many years the English seemed to forget about the lands which he had discovered and claimed for the king of England.

But English sailors watched the Spaniards in the West Indies and in America, and envied them the riches they were



Scene on the Coast of Labrador

gaining. During this period also England and Spain were fast becoming enemies. Occasionally an English captain would plunder Spanish ships or towns just as if he was a pirate. The most famous captain in England at this time was Francis Drake, who sailed into the Pacific Ocean, robbed Spanish ships off the coast of South America, and finally found his way back to England by the route which Magellan's sailors had followed. Queen Elizabeth made him a knight to reward him for his success.

Another Englishman, Sir Walter Raleigh, made several attempts to plant a colony on the coast of what is now North Carolina. He called the region Virginia, in honor of Elizabeth,

the "Virgin Queen." One of these colonies, led by John White in 1587, was made up of about 150 persons, including 25 women and children. While White was in England seeking to obtain supplies and aid for the colony, the settlers were either scattered or murdered by the Indians. No trace of them was ever found.

A Century's Success. — Thus, at the end of a century of discovery and exploration, only one settlement, St. Augustine, existed within the present limits of the United States. But the knowledge of the earth had been wonderfully increased. It was certain also that in a few years the men of western Europe — English, Dutch, French, and Spaniards — would rival one another in founding settlements.

QUESTIONS

1. What great work has been done by Americans in three hundred years of history?

2. In what ways were the explorers and early settlers better off than the Indians?

3. Where did the early emigrants to America obtain their knowledge?

4. Who were the three greatest discoverers? Why did they make their voyages?

5. Why was America named for Americus Vespucius rather than for Columbus?

6. Who conquered Mexico? What other Indian country was conquered at about the same time?

7. What portions of the United States did De Soto explore? Coronado? What settlement did the Spaniards later make in North America?

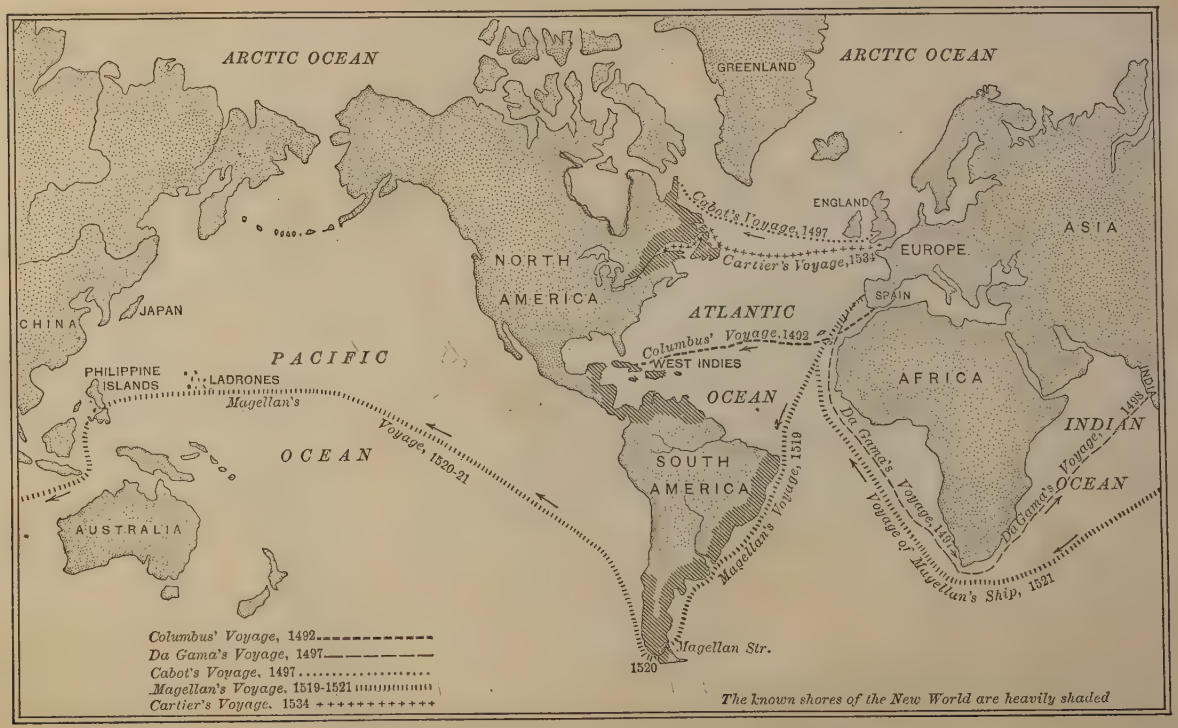
8. How did the Spaniards treat the Indians? Who took the place of the Indians in the West Indian Islands as laborers for the Spaniards?

9. What part of North America did the French explore? Who was their first great explorer? Why did he go up the St. Lawrence? Where did he attempt to settle? Why did he fail?

10. What part of North America did the English explore? Who were their explorers? Where did the English attempt to settle? Why did they fail?

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the tools and machines which settlers had three hundred years ago and which we have now.



MAP SHOWING FIVE FAMOUS VOYAGES OF EXPLORATION

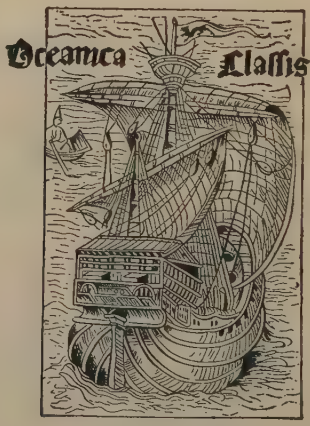
2. Prepare a list of the principal explorers and conquerors in the period of discoveries, with the places which they discovered or conquered, and the dates.

3. Study the maps of this chapter for the effect of discoveries and explorations on the knowledge of the New World. Make on the blackboard or in a notebook a copy of Behaim's globe, page 4; add coast lines and countries discovered or explored by Columbus, Magellan, De Soto, Coronado, Cabot, and Cartier, in order to show the growth of knowledge as a result of their combined work.

Important Dates:

1492. The discovery of America by Columbus.
1521. One of Magellan's ships completes the first voyage around the world.
1541. The discovery of the Mississippi by De Soto.
1565. The founding of St. Augustine.

Readings: A list of readings is given at the end of the book.

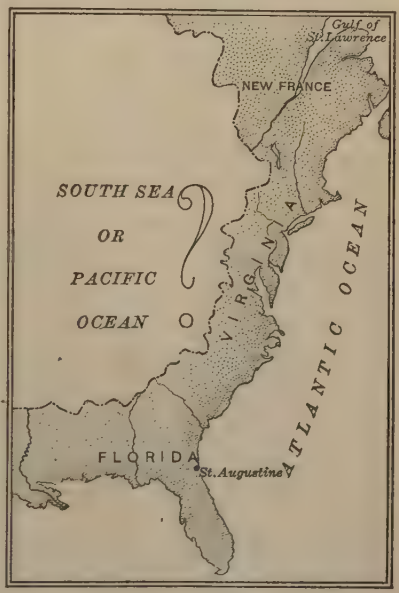


SHIP OF 1492

CHAPTER II

GAINING A FOOTHOLD ON THE ATLANTIC SHORE

Unexplored America. — In 1600 most of the region now included in the United States was not even explored. The followers of the unfortunate De Soto had floated down the Mississippi to its mouth, and Coronado had marched over much of the Southwest, but neither they nor the other Spanish adventurers attempted to explore the region thoroughly. The French had gone no further than the Lachine Rapids on the St. Lawrence. The vast plains and forests of the upper Mississippi Valley had not been seen by white men. And yet these lands were a prize richer than Mexico or Peru, not because of silver and gold in the treasure-houses of imaginary cities, but because of the wealth of soil, forest, and mine, which would some day give work to millions of men and women.



SUPPOSED EXTENT OF NORTH AMERICA

Map showing where the English, Dutch, and French explorers of about 1600 expected to find the South Sea or Pacific Ocean

The Rivals of the Spaniards. — When the new century opened the Spaniards were less able to struggle for the prize than in the days of Cortés, De Soto, and Coronado. It is true that they had conquered Portugal, and that their king now possessed the rich colonies which the Portuguese captains had founded in the East Indies. But at the same time the Spaniards had wasted much money and many lives in a quarrel with the Dutch, who were once Spain's loyal subjects. The Dutch were hardy sailors and were not afraid to attack Spanish ships. Indeed, they were usually victorious in such battles. The English also had a strong fleet and had in 1588 nearly destroyed the "Invincible Armada," the largest fleet the Spaniards ever had. France was another dangerous rival of Spain, especially under her new king, Henry of Navarre, the first of the Bourbon line of kings, who would not allow the Spaniards to treat French settlements as Menendez did.

Hindrances to Spanish Success. — Another thing hindered the Spaniards. Their king considered the colonies his own possessions, and no one could go to them without his consent. He was especially anxious to prevent any but steadfast Roman Catholic Christians from going. The ships for America set out always from a single port, at first Seville and later Cadiz. They were obliged to wait until there were enough to form a fleet. The enterprising seamen and merchants of other countries were hindered by no such restraints. Although the kings of England and of France considered newly discovered lands their possessions, they were willing to give any man, or any group of men, rich enough to fit out an expedition, permission to make settlements, to trade with the natives, and, sometimes, even to make war on rivals. The Dutch also acted in the same way.

East India Companies. — Queen Elizabeth, in 1600, granted such a permission, called a charter, to the East India Company, which was to trade beyond the Cape of

Good Hope. Dutch captains had been sailing to the East Indies for several years, and in 1602 the Dutch formed an East India Company. It was certain that the Dutch, the English, and the French would soon form companies to trade and make settlements in the Western Indies; that is, in what we call America. If they should, the Spaniards would have little chance of adding much to what they possessed, and might lose even that.

Samuel de Champlain

Champlain's First Settlement. — Of the three rivals of Spain the French were the first to attempt a settlement. Samuel de Champlain, who had already visited the New World in the service of the Spanish king, sailed for America in 1604, this time under the authority of King Henry of France. He was in the employ of a nobleman named De Monts. De Monts had received from the king the right to settle and rule the region between what is now New Jersey and Nova Scotia. About 120 men were in Champlain's party. Unfortunately for them they attempted to settle on a barren island in the St. Croix River, which is part of the present boundary between the United States and Canada. Many died the first winter, and the rest moved across the Bay of Fundy to a place they called Port Royal.

Champlain misses an Opportunity. — Champlain carefully explored the coast to the southward, but missed the excellent harbors where the English afterward built Portland and Boston. He entered the harbor of what was soon to become Plymouth, and sailed around Cape Cod. He was again unlucky enough not to find Narragansett Bay, where Newport was built later, or to pass through Long Island Sound

to the beautiful harbor now belonging to New York City. He concluded that there was a better chance for a colony in the region of the St. Lawrence River. He missed a great opportunity, leaving the way open for the English.

The Virginia Company. — Meanwhile several Englishmen had crossed the Atlantic, and one of them made such an enthusiastic report about the places he visited, which were on the Kennebec River, that his fellow countrymen were eager to found a colony. Raleigh's ill luck showed them that the best way was to form a company somewhat like the East India Company. Raleigh had spent on his ventures a sum almost equal to a million dollars, according to the present value of money, and yet he had failed, partly for the lack of more money. What might be called a stock company or corporation was therefore formed in 1606. Queen Elizabeth had died, and James I was on the throne. From him the company obtained the right to settle in America between the thirty-eighth and forty-fifth parallels of latitude. The region was still called Virginia, as Raleigh had named it. The company was, therefore, called the Virginia Company.[1] It was made up of noblemen, wealthy landholders, and rich

Sir Walter Raleigh

[1] The company was made up of two groups, one of Londoners, the other of men from the west of England. The first group was called the London Com-

merchants. Each one who gave a sum equal to $300 became owner or proprietor of a share, and was, of course, entitled to a part of the profits coming from trade with the Indians or from discoveries of gold.

"Eastward Ho!" — Some members of the company bought shares in the enterprise because they thought it patriotic to obtain lands in America for the king. Others wanted to Christianize the Indians. Still others expected to increase their fortunes. A popular play, called *Eastward Ho!* put on the stage in 1605, spoke of Virginia as a land where gold was more plentiful than copper in England. This play also said that the natives went out on holidays to gather rubies and diamonds to hang on their children's coats and to stick in their caps. Such tales were like those which caused De Soto to search for the Gilded Man, and Coronado for the Seven Cities of Cibola.

The Spaniards aroused. — Two years before the Virginia Company was formed King James had made peace with the king of Spain, so that the company's ships were not likely to be attacked on their way to America. But when the Spaniards heard that Englishmen were going to the New World, the Spanish ambassador at London declared that America was all a part of the Indies, which belonged to his king. King James listened politely, but said that there could be no wrong in settling on lands which the Spaniards had not occupied.

The Settlement at Jamestown. — A large part of the year 1606 was spent by the managers of the company in obtaining men for their proposed colony. What promises they made and what sort of men they persuaded to go, will be told in another chapter. Here it is enough to show the importance of the colony in the struggle between the Spaniards, English, French, and Dutch, for the best parts of North America.

pany, the second the Plymouth Company. It was the London Company which founded Jamestown.

The expedition set out just before Christmas, 1606. After five wearisome months on the ocean it reached Chesapeake Bay. The officers finally chose as a suitable place for their settlement a small peninsula running out into a stream which they called the James River. On May 14, 1607, the party landed and began to build a village, naming it Jamestown, after the king.

RUINS OF THE BRICK CHURCH
Built at Jamestown in 1639

Attempts to find the South Sea. — The settlers did not know that nearly three thousand miles separated them from the South Sea or Pacific Ocean, and while some were building houses others hurried off to see if Chesapeake Bay by any chance was the passage to the Indies for which so many sailors had looked. If it was, the founders of the colony would be well paid for the time and money they had expended. The most famous of these searchers after a route to the South Sea was Captain John Smith.

Settlement at Quebec. — The next year Champlain made his first settlement on the St. Lawrence. It was situated at a point where the river, ordinarily very broad, narrows to less than a mile in width. The strait, or narrows, was called "Quebec" by the Indians, and this name was given to Champlain's village. Three years later he made the beginnings of another settlement farther up the river at Montreal.

Henry Hudson. — About the same time an Englishman, Henry Hudson, who had entered the service of the Dutch East India Company, reached America in search of a passage to China. He sailed as far south as Chesapeake Bay, and then turned northward. Soon he entered the strait now called the Narrows, which separates New York harbor from the sea. He discovered the broad and beautiful river which

THE FIRST VIEW OF QUEBEC

stretches northward among the hills and which now bears his name. As the water was salt and the tides were strong, he thought this might be the passage for which he was looking. It is not strange that he was deceived. The Hudson for one hundred and fifty miles inland is not a true river, but a fiord or deep channel into the highlands, with a rock bottom below sea level. The *Half Moon*, Hudson's ship, aided by wind and tide, sailed or drifted until it was stopped by the shallows near the site of the present city of Albany. Hudson had not discovered a passage to China, but instead one of the most useful rivers in the world.

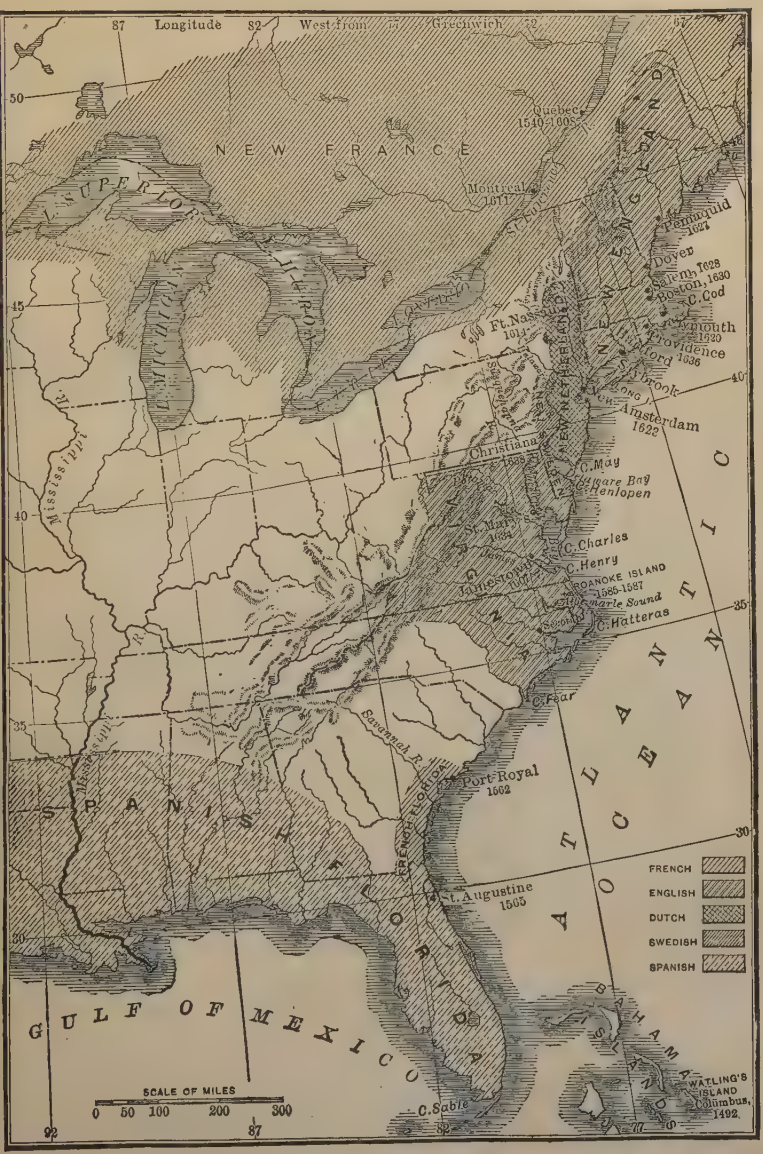
Discovery of Hudson Bay. — Two years later Hudson lost his life, still bravely pursuing his search for a passage to the

Indies. This time he was exploring in the far north, and entered that great arm of the sea which, as Hudson Bay, bears his name. His sailors, enraged because of the sufferings his venture compelled them to endure, mutinied and set him adrift in a small boat.

THE "HALF MOON" IN THE HUDSON RIVER

Settlement of New Amsterdam. — Dutch traders soon visited the Hudson River, but fourteen years passed before a regular settlement was made. In 1623 a fort and a few houses were built on the southern end of Manhattan Island, and the place was called New Amsterdam. The Dutch made another small settlement up the river at Fort Orange, where Albany is now situated.

Beginnings of Massachusetts. — The English had by this time founded another settlement, a small party having landed at Plymouth in 1620. Within a few years a group of English settlements was growing up on the shores of Massachusetts Bay, another group in Connecticut, another in Rhode Island, and still another in Maryland.



PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA OCCUPIED OR EXPLORED ABOUT 1650

A Foothold on the Atlantic Shore. — What Raleigh had failed to do had now been done several times. St. Augustine was no longer the only settlement on the Atlantic shore. The English had gained a foothold in several places. Their rivals, the Dutch and the French, were also there. But the Atlantic shore was only the fringe of the continent.

QUESTIONS

1. What parts of North America had been explored by 1600? What parts were unknown?
2. Why were the Spaniards weaker rivals in 1600 than in the days of Cortés? Who were the great rivals of Spain? What hindered the growth of the Spanish colonies?
3. What were the East India companies formed to do? Why were trading companies likely to injure Spain?
4. Which rival of Spain was the first to found a settlement in North America? Who led the expedition? Where was the settlement made? What coast did Champlain explore?
5. How did the English go to work to form a colony in the New World? Why was this method better than Raleigh's? What did the Spanish think of the plans of the Virginia Company?
6. What settlement did the Virginia Company make? What did the leaders of the colony hope to find near the settlement?
7. Where did Champlain make other French settlements?
8. What parts of America did the Dutch explore? Where did they make a settlement?
9. What English settlements were made about the time the Dutch made their settlement?

EXERCISES

1. Prepare a list of reasons why the English wanted a colony in America.
2. Point out, on an outline map of North America, the regions the rivals had explored and the places where each had obtained a foothold.

Important Dates:

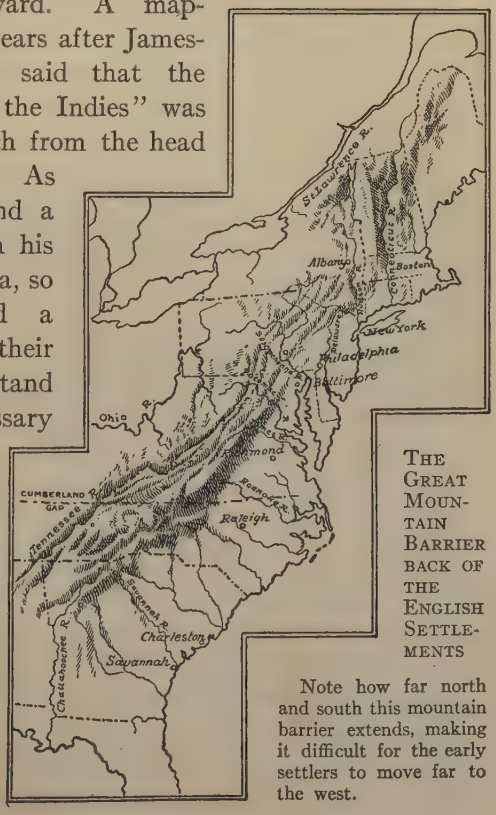
1604. Beginning of a French colony at St. Croix.
1607. Settlement of English at Jamestown.
1608. Champlain founds a French colony at Quebec.
1620. Beginning of English settlement of New England.
1623. Dutch settlement at New Amsterdam.

CHAPTER III

EXPLORING THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY

The Appalachian Barrier. — The more venturesome men of the early settlements in America were anxious to explore the country westward. A map-maker nearly fifty years after Jamestown was founded said that the "Sea of China and the Indies" was only ten days' march from the head of the James River. As Columbus had found a barrier continent in his attempt to reach Asia, so the settlers found a mountain barrier in their way. To understand their task it is necessary to see what sort of an obstacle this barrier offered.

Jamestown was built upon the coastal plain, which rises only a few feet above sea-level. Back of the coastal plain, sometimes as far as 150



THE GREAT MOUNTAIN BARRIER BACK OF THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS

Note how far north and south this mountain barrier extends, making it difficult for the early settlers to move far to the west.

miles, is a broken country, like New England in appearance, called the Piedmont,[1] and still farther back, a range of mountains. This range, the Appalachian Mountains, presented for 1,300 miles an almost unbroken wall to the advance of explorers or settlers.

Nature of the Barrier. — The Appalachians do not form a single barrier, but a system of barriers. Their eastern ridges fall away into low hills in eastern Pennsylvania, the highlands of New Jersey, and the palisades of the Hudson. In Maryland, Virginia, and farther south, they form a mountain range, called the Blue Ridge. West of these ridges, or of the hills which prolong them, lies the Appalachian Valley, also full of ridges difficult to cross. Still farther west rises the steep slope of the Alleghany and Cumberland plateau, a thousand or more feet in height. In Pennsylvania this is called the Alleghany Mountains. The western slope of the plateau falls away gradually toward the Mississippi River or the Great Lakes.

The Mohawk River

The Mohawk Passage. — The only real break in the barrier is the valley of the Mohawk, a river which flows into the Hudson near Albany. There the barrier sinks to a height of only 445 feet above sea level. Farther south the passes or passage ways are from 1,500 to 3,000 feet high.

The Westward Flowing Rivers. — In the south as well as the north the rivers show the natural routes across the mountains. Explorers going up stream along rivers which cross the coastal plain, passing through the rough Piedmont coun-

[1] Piedmont: French for "foot of mountain."

try, and climbing the mountains beyond, would find that they were not far from the head-waters of rivers flowing westward through mountain passes into the Mississippi Valley. For example, the upper waters of the James are near the streams which make up the Kanawha and flow finally into the Ohio. By following the course of other rivers, explorers could find the sources of the Tennessee, which makes its way into the Ohio near the Mississippi. But all this was very difficult, because in many places neither boats nor canoes could be used, and the journey must be made on foot, often through trackless forests or underbrush, and along steep and rocky hillsides.

The Best Passages. — The Appalachian barrier explains why more than a century passed before the English settlers on the coast found their way, except in rare cases, to the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi. The French at Quebec and Montreal were much more conveniently situated. If they succeeded in opening a route to the Great Lakes, they could reach several places from which, by short carries or portages,[1] they could go in canoes into the Mississippi. Had the Spaniards used the knowledge De Soto's followers carried back, they might have been still better off, and have entered the great valley from the south. The Dutch were better situated than the English, north and south of them, because from the Hudson they could follow up the valley of the Mohawk. But something besides the Appalachians kept the Dutch, as well as other settlers, from venturing far westward. This second obstacle was the Indian tribes.

The Indian Barrier. — Columbus had seen Indians as soon as he discovered San Salvador. Cortés had conquered the Aztec Indians in Mexico. Coronado had visited the Zuñi Indians of the southwest, and had seen others on the plains farther north. De Soto had fought with Indians many times in his struggle through the southern forests to the banks of

[1] Places where two bodies of water are near together.

the Mississippi. To meet or fight with Indians was, therefore, nothing new for the settlers of America.

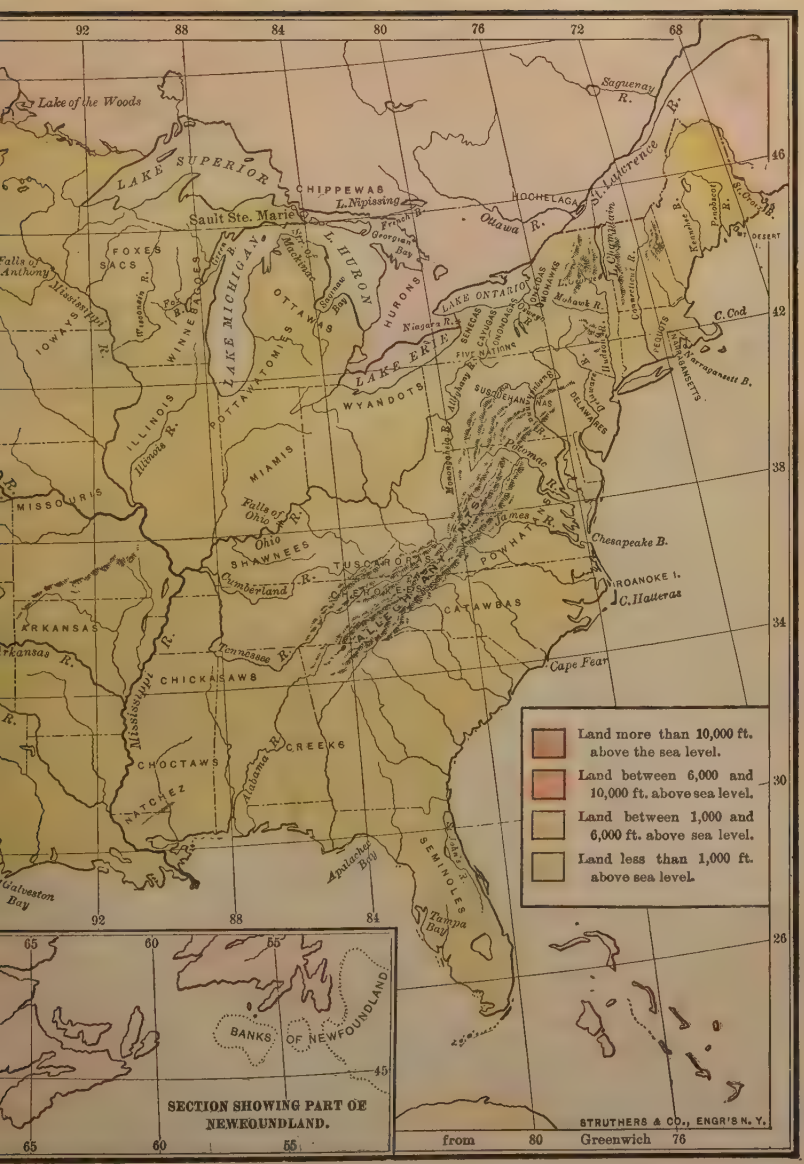
How the Indians lived. — The northern Indians were more barbarous than the Zuñis or Aztecs. They did not live in towns like the pueblos, or like those in Mexico. Most of their houses were merely rude tents of skins or bark. They raised tobacco, corn, and a few vegetables, the women doing all the work. The men did little but hunt or fight neighboring tribes. Until they obtained guns from the settlers, the Indians used bows and arrows. Their arrow and spear-heads were of flint. Their axes and their bowls also were of stone. They were very glad to obtain steel knives and axes from the settlers, for stone tools are hard to work with.

Bark Wigwam of the Eastern Indians

The Territories of the Indians; the Iroquois. — The Indians had many chiefs, but no government like that of civilized peoples. A tribe might be made up of many villages. Its lands had no fixed boundaries or frontiers, but its members knew their hunting grounds, and were ready to fight against anyone who entered them. Sometimes tribes were united in a confederacy by agreements or treaties. Such a confederacy was the Iroquois, or "Five Nations," who lived in the region now included in New York, northern Pennsylvania, and northeastern Ohio. Had the settlers tried to force a way through the Mohawk Valley, the Iroquois would have disputed every step.

Other Indian Tribes. — The Indians in Canada and what is now New England were Algonquins, enemies of the Iro-

128
VANCOUVER
120
116
112
108
104
Str. of Juan de Fuca
C. Flattery
Puget Sd.
Columbia R.
CASCADE RANGE
WALLA WALLAS
NEZ PERCES
Clark's Fork
Lewis R.
BLACKFEET
Missouri R.
Great Falls of the Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
CROWS
ROCKY MTS.
THE GREAT PLAINS
BLACK HILLS
North Platte R.
Pass
SNAKES
DOCS
Great Salt L.
UTAHS
Humboldt R.
PAWNEES
Pike's Pk.
Pt. Reyes
San Francisco Bay
Monterey B.
SIERRA NEVADA RANGE
Pt. Conception
Colorado R.
Gila R.
APACHES
CASA GRANDE
COMANCHES
Rio Grande
PACIFIC OCEAN
46
42
38
34
30
26
120
116
170
160
150
140
60
SCALE
0 100 200 Miles
ARCTIC CIRCLE
ATHABASKANS
ESQUIMAUX
SEAL FISHERIES
EUTSO
MAP SHOWING
NATURAL FEATURES &
NATIVE TRIBES
OF THE UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300
Longitude


92
88
84
80
76
72
68
46
42
38
34
30
26
Lake of the Woods
LAKE SUPERIOR
CHIPPEWAS
L. Nipissing
Sault Ste. Marie
Saguenay R.
St. Lawrence R.
HOCHELAGA
Ottawa R.
Falls of Anthony
Mississippi R.
FOXES
SACS
IOWAS
Wisconsin R.
WINNEBAGOES
LAKE MICHIGAN
Green Bay
L. Michigan
L. HURON
Georgian Bay
OTTAWAS
POTTAWATOMIES
HURONS
LAKE ONTARIO
Niagara R.
SENECAS
CAYUGAS
ONONDAGOS
ONEIDAS
MOHAWKS
Mohawk R.
FIVE NATIONS
LAKE ERIE
WYANDOTS
ILLINOIS
Illinois R.
MIAMIS
Wabash R.
SUSQUEHANNAS
Susquehanna R.
DELAWARES
Delaware R.
Potomac R.
C. Cod
Narragansett B.
MASSACHUSETTS
DESERT
MISSOURIS
Falls of Ohio
Ohio R.
SHAWNEES
Cumberland R.
TUSCARORAS
JAMES TOWN
James R.
POWHATANS
Chesapeake B.
ROANOKE I.
C. Hatteras
ARKANSAS
Arkansas R.
Tennessee R.
CHICKASAWS
CATAWBAS
Cape Fear
Mississippi R.
CHOCTAWS
CREEKS
Alabama R.
NATCHEZ
Galveston Bay
Apalachee Bay
SEMINOLES
St. John's R.
Tampa Bay
Land more than 10,000 ft. above the sea level.
Land between 6,000 and 10,000 ft. above sea level.
Land between 1,000 and 6,000 ft. above sea level.
Land less than 1,000 ft. above sea level.
65
60
55
45
BANKS OF NEWFOUNDLAND
SECTION SHOWING PART OF NEWFOUNDLAND.
STRUTHERS & CO., ENGR'S N. Y.
from 80 Greenwich 76

quois. The Indians whose lands lay just beyond the line of early southern settlements were the Cherokees, — related to the Iroquois, — and the Creeks and Choctaws, who belonged to another great family called the Muskogee.

A Dwelling House of the Iroquois

Champlain and the Indian Barrier. — Champlain first learned how strong was the Indian barrier. He wished to gain the good will of his Indian neighbors, the Algonquin tribes, and consented in 1609 to join a war-party against the Iroquois. The Indians carried him in their light birch-bark canoes up the St. Lawrence to the Richelieu, and so to the lake which now bears his name. The Indians soon discovered a war-party of the enemy near where Ticonderoga now stands.

Champlain's Fight with the Iroquois. — Champlain and his two white companions put on their armor and made ready their guns. His Indian allies put him at their head. "I marched," he said, "some twenty paces in advance of the rest, until I was within about thirty paces of the enemy, who at once noticed me, and, halting, gazed at me, as I did also at them. When I saw them making a move to fire at us, I rested my musket against my cheek, and aimed directly at one of the three chiefs. With the same shot, two fell to the ground; and one of their men was so wounded that he died

sometime after. I had loaded my musket with four balls. When our side saw this shot so favorable for them, they began to raise such loud cries that one could not have heard it thunder. Meanwhile, the arrows flew on both sides. The Iroquois were greatly astonished that two men had been so quickly killed. . . . As I was loading again, one of my companions fired a shot from the woods, which astonished them

CHAMPLAIN'S FIGHT WITH THE IROQUOIS
After the drawing by Champlain in his *Voyages*

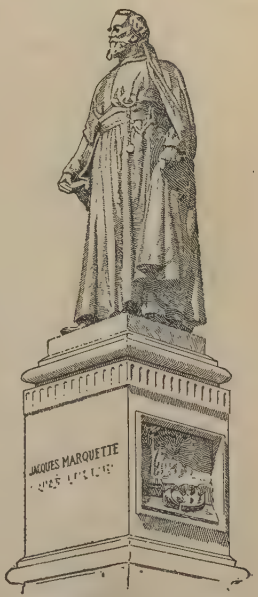
anew to such a degree that, seeing their chiefs dead, they lost courage and took to flight, abandoning their camp and fort, and fleeing into the woods."

A Costly Victory. — A few years later Champlain joined another Algonquin party which planned to attack a fortified village of the Iroquois near where Syracuse is situated. He was not so successful, and he and his friends were forced to retreat. These expeditions secured for the French the friendship of the Algonquins and the hatred of the Iroquois, who murdered all the Frenchmen they could lay hands on.

Henry Hudson and the Iroquois. — It happened that a few weeks after Champlain's battle with the Iroquois, Henry

Hudson was sailing up the river now named for him. He met other bands of Iroquois, received them on board the *Half Moon*, and gave them a feast. It is not surprising that the Iroquois liked the Dutch better than the French, especially as the Dutch settlers at New Amsterdam and Fort Orange were ready to trade knives, tools, guns, and liquors for furs.

Discovery of the Great Lakes. — Champlain was not content with his exploration of the region now included in northern New York. Like all the others, he was anxious to discover some passage to the South Sea. He visited Lake Ontario, but not Lake Erie, which was surrounded by the hunting grounds of the hostile Iroquois. His most wonderful journey took him to Lake Huron. He followed the Ottawa River to its source, crossed over to streams flowing westward through a chain of small lakes, and paddled down to Georgian Bay and on to Lake Huron. Before he died, in 1635, his men had discovered Lake Superior and Lake Michigan.



STATUE OF MARQUETTE
At Marquette, Mich.

Father Marquette. — After the death of Champlain other Frenchmen pushed forward the work of exploring the western country. Some of these were missionaries, especially Jesuits or members of the Society of Jesus, who went into this region to establish mission stations among the Indians. Father Jacques Marquette was one of these. The Indians from time to time gave him reports of a great river beyond the Lakes. Marquette thought that this might lead to the South Sea.

Discovery of the Mississippi. — In 1673, in company with Louis Joliet, a fur trader, and five men, Marquette set out in search of the river. Their outfit consisted of two canoes and a supply of smoked beef and Indian corn. From Lake Michigan they turned into the Fox River. Near the head of the Fox, Indian guides showed them an easy path or portage to the head-waters of the Wisconsin River. They paddled down the Wisconsin until they reached the Mississippi, the great river that the Indians had described. Marquette followed its course for a month, passing the point where the swift but muddy waters of the Missouri joined it. He also saw the lonely forest which was to be the site of St. Louis, and passed the mouth of the Ohio. Near the mouth of the Arkansas River, not far from where De Soto had crossed the Mississippi more than a hundred years before, the little party turned back. They had discovered that the Mississippi would not carry them to the Pacific.

In 1674 Marquette and two companions built a log-cabin where Chicago now stands and spent the winter there. His men killed deer, buffalo, and wild turkeys close to their hut. The friendly Indians occasionally visited them, bringing corn and game.

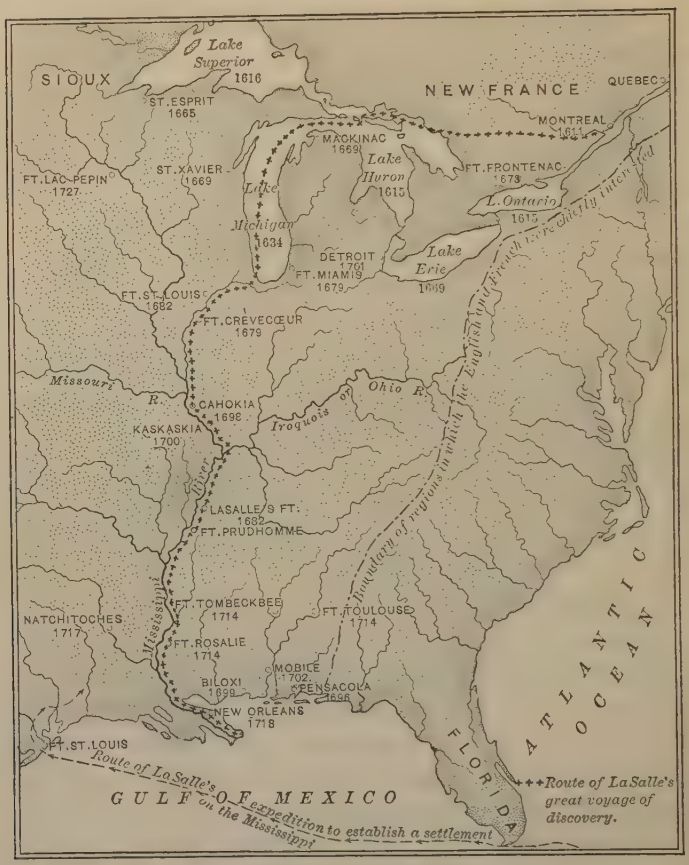
La Salle. — The greatest of French explorers was La Salle. Moved by the story of Marquette's discovery, he resolved to trace the great river to its mouth and claim the whole region for his king and country. He had already had many adventures among the hostile Iroquois near Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. Once he had built a little vessel, the *Griffin*, at the eastern end of Lake Erie, for use in the fur trade on the Great Lakes, but this was soon destroyed in a storm on Lake Michigan. He always had some new plan for the fur trade and for exploration of the West. He was the first of his fellow countrymen to see the value of the Mississippi Valley for agriculture and commerce. Twice he attempted

the long, difficult voyage from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi in frail canoes, and twice he failed. The hostility of the bands of Indians, the loss of supplies and canoes, the hardships of the northern winter, and the sickness of his men turned him back. Finally, in 1682, he was successful, but only after toiling through snow and over frozen fields, almost as if he were searching for the North Pole.

Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle

La Salle explores the Mississippi. — La Salle's little company of French woodsmen and Indians left Lake Michigan in midwinter and dragged their canoes over the ice to the headwaters of the Illinois, and paddled down the dangerous stream, in the midst of breaking ice, to the Mississippi. After they reached the Mississippi their task was easier, although their frail canoes were often in peril. In the balmy spring of 1682, after a voyage of three months and a half, they arrived at the mouth of the river. La Salle solemnly took possession of the whole valley, including, he said, "all the nations, peoples, provinces, cities, towns, villages, mines, minerals, fisheries, streams, and rivers." This was a way explorers had of claiming everything. He set up a pole bearing the arms of France, with an inscription or writing giving the date and the king's name. He also buried a leaden plate similarly marked. A wooden cross was planted beside the pole. He named the region Louisiana in honor of King Louis XIV.

La Salle attempts to found a Settlement. — La Salle, not content with discovering the mouth of the Mississippi, planned to build a fort and establish regular settlements. This would



MAP OF LA SALLE'S EXPLORATIONS

keep the Spaniards out, and would also become the center of a large trade with the Indians. After his return to France he fitted out an expedition and sailed for the New World. He tried to find his way through the Gulf of Mexico to the mouth of the Mississippi, but missed it and landed on the coast of Texas some four hundred miles west of his goal. His vessels were so greatly damaged that he abandoned them, and tried to reach the Mississippi by journeying on foot.

Buffalo meat made up what he called their "daily bread," and the skins replaced their worn-out clothing. For more than two years he struggled against obstacles. It was the old story of De Soto and his wanderings in the Mississippi Valley over again, except that La Salle was farther south and west. Great prairies, hostile Indians, swamps and bayous, and tangled and matted forests obstructed his way. The leader of the expedition finally lost his life on the journey.

THE FLAT LAND AT THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI

His followers, weary of their hardships, mutinied and killed him. But not many years afterward other Frenchmen were more fortunate and made a settlement on the Gulf coast near the mouth of the Mississippi.

The English Attempts to cross the Barrier. — The great Appalachian barrier, which faced the English settlements, kept the English from reaching the Mississippi Valley as soon as the French. But they made brave efforts, lured on by the hope of finding an "Indian Sea." In September, 1671, two Virginians, Captain Thomas Batts and Robert Fallam, after crossing the rough Piedmont country and climbing the Blue Ridge, discovered a river flowing northwest. This was the New River, which empties into the Kanawha. They went on until they reached a place near the present boundary

of Virginia and West Virginia. Two years later James Needham succeeded in crossing the Blue Ridge farther south and reaching the head-waters of the Tennessee.

Why the English could wait. — It was fortunate that few Englishmen were tempted by such ventures. The settlements on the coast needed all who came from Europe to clear the fields, plant crops, build towns, and open trade with one another and with Europe. There would be time enough to conquer the Mississippi Valley after a newer England had grown up on the Atlantic coast.

QUESTIONS

1. What barrier held back the early explorers and settlers? What was the Piedmont country?
2. What natural break was there in the barrier? Why were the Dutch and the French better situated than the English for entering the West? What other barrier kept back the Dutch?
3. How did the Indians live? Where were the Iroquois located? How did Champlain make enemies of the Iroquois? Why was Champlain's victory a costly one for the French?
4. What other parts of North America did Champlain explore? By what route did Marquette find the Mississippi?
5. What part of North America did La Salle explore? What was he trying to do when he lost his life?
6. What Englishmen crossed the great barrier into the West? By what route? Was this before the French discovered the Mississippi? Why was it better for the English to remain longer east of the barrier?

EXERCISES

1. Draw a map of the Appalachian barrier and of the routes across or around it to the Mississippi Valley.
2. Gather pictures of Indian objects, tools, houses, and the like, which show their manner of life.
3. Locate on an outline map of North America the hunting grounds of the Indian tribes which the early settlers knew.
4. How many years passed between De Soto's discovery of the Mississippi and Marquette's?
5. Trace on a map the explorations of Champlain, Marquette, and La Salle.
6. Trace the explorations of Fallam and Needham.

CHAPTER IV

THE FOUNDING OF VIRGINIA

The First English Emigrants. — The first emigrants who went to Virginia were ill-prepared for the work before them. About half were young men belonging to the gentry, or lesser nobility of England, who had never done a day's work. They were eager for gold and for adventure. Several of the emigrants were carpenters, bricklayers, masons, and other skilled laborers. The remainder were poor workmen from the farm districts, with a few worthless criminals and vagabonds from London. No women went on this first voyage. All the men were offered free passage to Virginia, and food, clothing, and shelter while in the employ of the company. When the company should be dissolved, the emigrants were to share in the profits and receive a part of the land.

The First Voyage. — The voyage to America was then very different from the voyage of emigrants nowadays. The ships were hardly bigger than those which Columbus had used a hundred years before. Instead of attempting to sail straight across the stormy North Atlantic, the sailors followed the route of the Spaniards, stopping at the Canary Islands and at several of the West India Islands. Contrary winds delayed them off the English coast for two months. Their provisions consisted mainly of salt meat and barley or wheat flour. Long before their five months' voyage was over the barley spoiled. Fortunately, in the islands where they stopped they caught fish and birds for food. But by the time they landed 16 of the 120 men had died.

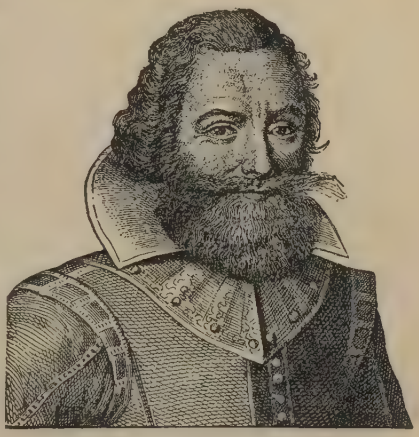
Settlement of Jamestown. — All were delighted to escape from the close, filthy quarters on shipboard and wander about on the Virginia shore that May morning in 1607. Even those who did not know how to work were willing at first to help in felling trees and clearing the land for tents and a fort. The fort was a rough affair, made by laying trunks and branches of trees end to end around a half acre. Some cut out clapboards to send back to England when the ships returned. Others planted a small field of wheat. They made a garden, but the season for planting was already past, and the seeds did not do well. This was a great misfortune, because they had little left on their ships to eat during the months before another season would open. In June the ships sailed back to England for supplies, but it was seven months before they came again.

Map of Virginia

Early Troubles at Jamestown. — Meanwhile two thirds of those left on shore died of hunger or disease. Jamestown was situated on a low tongue of land, with marshes all about. Soon malarial fever attacked the settlers. They had no pure water to drink, and were obliged to use the river water, which at high tide was salt and at low tide slimy. Most of them lived in bark or brush tents. The only buildings were a few rude huts, a storehouse, and a chapel.

The Starving Time. — The arrival of the ships in January, 1608, helped for a while, because they had fresh supplies on

board, but they also brought more emigrants, which meant more mouths to feed. Several times in the next few years the settlement was on the verge of ruin. The winter of 1609 and 1610 was long known as the Starving Time. After all supplies were consumed, the settlers ate their dogs and horses. Barely sixty men were living when spring came. During the first three years the company sent out more than 300 emigrants, but at the end of that time only eighty were left.



Captain John Smith

Captain John Smith. — The hero of those years of suffering was Captain John Smith. Every one knows the story of his capture by the Indians and of his rescue by Pocahontas, the chieftain's daughter. There are other things better worth remembering about him. Soon after his return to Jamestown he was made governor. He forced the idle and lazy to work, making the rule that "he who would not work should not eat." In a short time all were busy chopping down trees, hewing out lumber, and gathering pitch. The settlement took on an air of life and energy. Smith also saved the settlers from starvation by opening a profitable trade with the Indians. When the Indians saw that the colonists were in distress, they tried to drive hard bargains, offering only small pieces of bread or a few beans for a piece of copper or a hatchet. Smith found that the Indians liked colored beads. His men also learned to make chisels and hatchets from the iron they discovered in Virginia. When every other way

failed, he compelled the Indians to trade. They dared not refuse, for his guns were more dangerous than their bows and arrows. Unfortunately, in 1609 he was hurt by an explosion of powder, and went to England to have his wounds cared for. He never returned to Virginia.

Jamestown not a Real Settlement. — In 1610 the company sent over a harsh governor, who tried to make the colonists work better by introducing the strict discipline of an army post. The day's work began at six with beat of drum. When it closed in the afternoon, all were marched to the church for prayers. One reason why the men did not work well was that they were working for the company and not for themselves. Whatever they produced went to the company's storehouse. The garden and the wheat fields belonged to the company. The men were fed and clothed from the common stock. Life at Jamestown was more like that of a lumber camp or a mining camp than of an ordinary town.

Working for the Company. — The men who were not busy producing the food needed for the settlement worked to obtain loads for the company's ships. Lumber was about the only thing which could be produced at first. Once the Virginians thought they had found gold dust and sent part of a cargo of it to England. Not until the ship arrived at the wharf in England was it discovered that the gold dust was only yellow sand.

A Change in the Company's Plans. — In 1614 Governor Dale made an important change in the management of the settlement in order to encourage industry. He allotted to a few of the older colonists three acres of land apiece, expecting them to pay as rent two and one half barrels of corn an acre, and to work for the company thirty days each year. The plan was so successful that the company stopped sending men over to work for it directly. The company also

encouraged rich men to take large farms in Virginia and supply their own laborers.

Plantations. — These new settlers may be called planters and their farms plantations. Their number increased, while the number of men working for the company decreased. The company was obliged to content itself with the rent of its land, and the trade carried on between England and Virginia.

Indentured Servants. — The planters obtained laborers by offering free passage, food, clothing, and shelter to men

JAMESTOWN IN 1622

willing to go to Virginia, but who had no money to pay their expenses. These men in return agreed to become servants of the planters for four, five, six, or sometimes even seven years. They were commonly called indentured servants, because they gave a bond or indenture, pledging them to serve. When their term of service ended, they could work for wages. As land was plentiful they might soon be able to secure farms. Sometimes a poor but ambitious young man would choose this means of seeking his fortune in Virginia.

The First Slaves. — The first settlers in Virginia did not follow the example of the Spaniards and make slaves of the Indians. The main reason was that it was so easy for them to run away and find refuge among the other Indians of the

region. Indians were frequently hired to hunt and fish for the planters. In 1619 a Dutch sea-captain stopped at Jamestown, having on board his ship some negroes whom he had stolen from the Spaniards in the West Indies. He sold 20 of them to the planters. But it was a long time before many negro slaves were brought into the colony. The cost of slaves varied from $100 to $250, while five, six, or seven years' service of an indentured servant cost from $50 to $75.

Beginnings of Family Life at Jamestown. — Up to 1619 few women had arrived at Jamestown. The settlers did not wish to marry Indian women, as many of the Spanish colonists had, although John Rolfe, a prosperous planter, married Pocahontas. The company now concluded, in the quaint phrase of the time, "that a plantation can never flourish till families be planted and . . . wives and children fix the people to the soil." Accordingly the company sent ninety young women to Virginia. The understanding was that a settler desiring a wife must gain the consent of the woman he chose and must pay her passage, which amounted to 120 pounds of tobacco. The plan was so successful that the company sent out many other young women.

Growth of the Colony. — Life in Virginia gradually became more attractive. Whole families began to come from England of their own accord. The older settlers built larger houses in place of their rude huts. They sent for horses and cattle. The plantations increased in number as the newcomers settled along the river courses. On the James they spread as far as the falls where Richmond is situated.

Rivers the Roads of Virginia. — The rivers were the highways connecting one plantation with another. Roads were almost unknown. Each planter had a wharf, at which seagoing ships could unload furniture, tools, cloth, and many other things, taking the planter's crop in exchange. In such a country market-towns were not needed and were very scarce.

Families used the river highways in visiting or going to church, being rowed by their servants or slaves.

Finding Wealth. — The officers of the company expected to find the main profits of the enterprise in gold mines, just as the Spaniards had been made rich by the mines of Mexico and Peru. When their explorers discovered no mines, they tried to make a profit by sending pitch, tar, and other naval

How the Colonists built their new Homes

supplies to England. The settlers in Virginia soon found something profitable to grow. This was tobacco.

Raising Tobacco. — At first the tobacco which the Indians raised seemed too bitter, but John Rolfe learned how to cure it in such a manner that it found a ready sale in the London market. King James hated tobacco and tried to keep his subjects from using it. The governor of Virginia also thought that raising tobacco would take time from more useful labor and made a rule that no farmer should plant tobacco until he had planted two acres of corn. Still, tobacco fields spread in spite of the law. At Jamestown, in the spring of 1617,

the market-place and even the borders of the streets were set with the plants. This is not surprising, for a single pound sometimes brought in London as much as $12 in present money. The price fell as more was raised, but tobacco continued to be the chief product on which the planters depended for profit.

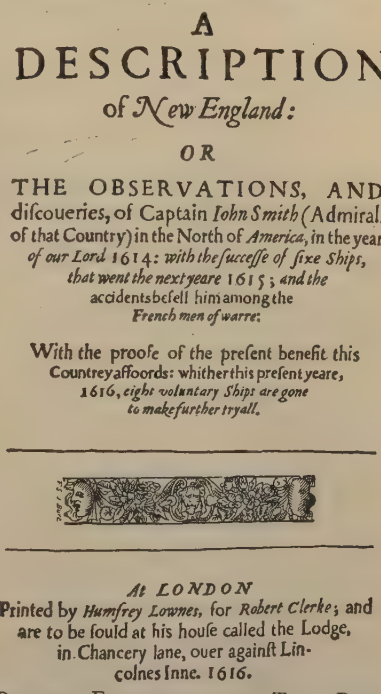
The dried leaves were so convenient to handle that they became the money of the day, bound together in pound or hundred-pound packages. The price of everything was reckoned in pounds of tobacco. The salaries of public officers and of clergymen, as well as all debts, were also paid with it.

The First Virginia Assembly. — The officers of the Virginia Company had already decided to rent the land and sell it to planters, instead of managing it themselves. Soon they shared the government of the colony with the settlers. They hoped in this way to give the colonists a deeper interest in the welfare of the settlements. They were at the same time following closely in the footsteps of their ancestors. Far back in the Middle Ages the people of England had expected the king to ask the advice of representatives of the towns before he spent money which the towns raised. Why should the Englishmen who managed the affairs of the company be less just to their settlers than the king was obliged to be to them? Accordingly the company, in 1619, invited the chief settlements each to choose two delegates to form an assembly or little "parliament." This assembly assisted the governor of the colony and his council. At first it numbered 22 members, and met in the wooden church at Jamestown. It may appear like a small and unimportant body, but the Virginia Assembly of 1619 was the forerunner of every state legislature of the present day.

The English Laws obeyed in Virginia. — The custom of governing themselves by representatives was not the only

custom that the settlers brought over from England. The year after the meeting of the first Virginia Assembly, the company decided to select from the English laws those rules which might apply to ways of living in the colony. A little later, the judges in Virginia were required to promise to "do justice as near as may be" to the way justice was done in England. Trial by jury was one way which was as old as parliament.

Schools and Books. — Many of the early settlers were educated men and were anxious to have their children educated. They were at first obliged to engage private teachers or send their sons to English schools. They brought books with them from England. Some of them enjoyed reading books written by the Greeks and Romans. The Englishman in Virginia was much like the Englishman who remained in England. He did his farming differently, and that was about all.


A
DESCRIPTION
of *New England:*
OR
THE OBSERVATIONS, AND discoueries, of Captain *Iohn Smith* (Admirall of that Country) in the North of *America*, in the yeare *of our Lord* 1614: *with the succesſe of ſixe Ships, that went the next yeare* 1615; *and the* accidents befell him among the *French men of warre:*

With the proofe of the preſent benefit this Countrey affoords: whither this preſent yeare, 1616, *eight voluntary Ships are gone to make further tryall.*

At LONDON
Printed by *Humfrey Lownes*, for *Robert Clerke*; and are to be ſould at his houſe called the Lodge, in Chancery lane, ouer againſt Lincolnes Inne. 1616.

REDUCED FACSIMILE OF THE TITLE-PAGE OF A BOOK THAT JOHN SMITH WROTE

Number of Virginians. — Nearly 7,000 settlers had come at one time or another since 1607, but most of them had perished of hardships and disease. The Indians surprised the settlers in 1622 and killed 347. In 1624 Virginia had a population of 1,232 colonists, including 23 negro slaves.

End of the Virginia Company. — King James did not long permit the Virginia Company to manage the colony. In 1624 he took away its privileges, expecting to control the colony more directly. Neither he nor his successors interfered much with it. He appointed the governor, but the settlers usually managed their own affairs.

QUESTIONS

1. Who were the first emigrants to Virginia? Why did they go out to settle under a trading company? What route did their ship follow?
2. What work did the early settlers do? Why did they suffer so much? What did Captain John Smith do for them?
3. In what ways was life at Jamestown more like a lumber camp or a mining camp than an ordinary town? What change in the company's plans did Governor Dale introduce?
4. What was an indentured servant? Did they cost more or less than slaves? Which worked for the planters the longer — slaves or servants?
5. What did the company do in order to introduce family life more fully into its colony?
6. What use did the settlers make of the rivers in Virginia? What profitable crop did they find?
7. Why did the Virginia Company share the government with the colonists? How large was the colony in 1624? Why had the colony grown slowly?
8. Why did King James deprive the Virginia Company of its privileges? Did he carry out his plan?

EXERCISES

1. Learn about some one of the many state legislatures in the United States — where it holds its sessions, how many members it has, what it does — and then compare it with the first Virginia Assembly.
2. Find the Old-World customs which the Virginians followed in their new country.

Important Dates:

1607. The founding of Jamestown by the Virginia Company.
1619. The first Virginia Assembly at Jamestown.

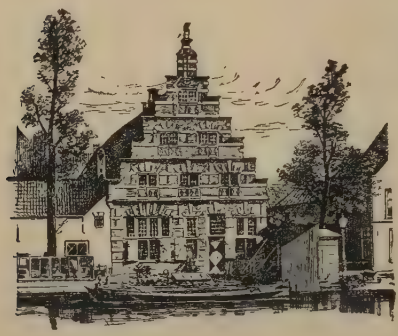
CHAPTER V

THE EXILES FOR CONSCIENCE SAKE AT PLYMOUTH

The Separatists. — Virginia had its origin in the plans of a trading company, and was in the main a business venture. Quite different was the beginning of Plymouth colony. Queen Elizabeth and her successor, King James, like most people of their time in England and Europe, thought that everybody ought to attend the religious services ordered by law. Some of their subjects, however, believed that they had a right to form congregations and manage their religious affairs undisturbed by the government. This led to their being called "Independents" or "Separatists." They disliked, besides, the manner of conducting the ordinary services of the English Church. When they tried to organize small independent churches, where they could worship in their own way, royal officials hunted them out and punished them by fines and imprisonment. If after three months' imprisonment they refused to obey, they could be expelled from the kingdom and their property seized.

Exiles in Holland. — In 1607 and 1608 rather than run the risk of losing all their property, as well as of being sent into exile, many Separatists, especially from the farming region near Lincoln and York, crossed the North Sea to the Dutch cities of Amsterdam and Leyden. They could worship as they chose in Holland, but they found that only by the severest toil, including the labor of their children, could they make a living. They soon realized that their children were likely to forget the English language and English customs,

marry into Dutch families, and perhaps enter the Dutch army and navy. Some of the older people returned to England, preferring to risk imprisonment rather than cease being English. One congregation living at Leyden, of which John Robinson was the pastor, decided to go to America. They expected to find land and a chance to worship as they believed. They were, however, too poor to go so far without help. Accordingly they sent two of their number to London to secure money to carry out their plan.



A House in Leyden, in 1620

The Plan to emigrate to America. — Some London merchants were persuaded to advance £1,200, equivalent to nearly $30,000 in money today, with which to hire ships and sailors and buy supplies. The understanding was that each subscriber of £10 was to own a share. Each of the Pilgrims, as the members of this emigrant band were called, was also to receive a share. Both people and money were needed to found a colony. All that the colonists could gain during the first seven years by labor or by trade with the Indians, except what was needed for their daily support, was to belong to the common stock. When the seven years were up, this stock was to be divided with the London merchants who had aided them.

The Pilgrims. — Only a part of the Pilgrim congregation left Leyden in the first expedition. There was neither room on the ship nor money enough for all. Robinson remained in Leyden with the others, who needed him more. William Brewster, a printer and writer, and next to Robinson the

leading man of the congregation, joined the party of emigrants and became their pastor. Among them was William Bradford, a born leader of men, and later the historian of the colony. Miles Standish, a soldier in Holland during the recent war with Spain, also joined the Pilgrims. Two others were John Alden and Priscilla Mullins, about whom the poet Longfellow has told a pretty story.

MANOR HOUSE AT SCROOBY, ENGLAND
William Brewster's Residence

Their Voyage. — The Pilgrims left Holland in the summer of 1620. After many delays in England, a company of 102 sailed from Plymouth, September 6, in the ship *Mayflower*. For nine weeks the little company was tossed about on the rough seas of the North Atlantic, living in narrow, unwholesome quarters, as the first emigrants to Virginia had done thirteen years before.

Choosing a Place for Settlement. — The Pilgrims had planned to settle somewhere in the neighborhood of the Hudson or the Delaware River, in what was then regarded as the northern part of Virginia. But after the *Mayflower* passed Cape Cod it came upon dangerous shoals. The stormy season had set in, and winter was fast coming on. The plan to go farther was, therefore, abandoned, and a site for a settlement was sought nearer at hand.

The "Mayflower" Compact. — Steps were also taken to ensure orderly government in the colony after landing. The men held a meeting in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, chose one of their number, John Carver, to be their governor, and signed a solemn compact or agreement to submit to the laws which should be made by the majority.

Departure of the Pilgrims from Delft Haven
From a famous old Dutch painting

Beginnings of Plymouth. — A party of explorers in a boat left the ship at Cape Cod and explored the coast. On Monday, December 21, 1620, they landed at a place which Captain John Smith had already seen. He had given the name New England to the region from Nova Scotia to Cape Cod, and the name Plymouth to the well-sheltered harbor into which the Pilgrims now sailed.[1] This also happened to be

[1] In 1614 Captain John Smith, having recovered from his accident in Virginia, made a voyage of exploration along the American coast from Maine to Cape Cod. He wrote a description of what he called New England, and also drew a map of the region. He presented the map to Prince Charles, then a boy of fifteen, who afterward became King Charles I. Charles and Smith changed about 30 barbarous Indian names to familiar English and Scotch

the name of the last English port which they had seen. They found a protected harbor, running brooks, and cleared land at Plymouth, and decided to locate there. Several days later the *Mayflower* came to anchor in the harbor and

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH'S MAP OF NEW ENGLAND

the men began building the first houses. Lots were given to each family in proportion to the number of members. The women and children and the sick remained for weeks aboard the ship. Before the first winter was over several small houses had been built, with the sides of rudely squared logs and the roofs thatched with dry swamp grass. One served as a storehouse for tools and provisions. Into the others the families moved as soon as they were able.

names, mostly places in which the young prince was interested. Accomacke was changed to Plymouth.

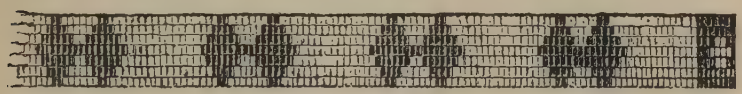
The First Winter. — Prolonged ship life and exposure in a strange climate made havoc in the Pilgrim colony. When the first warm weather of the spring came barely half the colonists were living. Governor Carver died in April, 1621. Eighteen married women had come over in the *Mayflower;* only four of them still lived. The graves of the dead were carefully covered and planted with corn in the spring in order to conceal from the Indians the ravages of disease in the little colony

PLYMOUTH HARBOR

Fear of the Indians. — The Pilgrims were fortunately free from trouble with the Indians. A recent pestilence had carried off most of those of the neighborhood, and left their cleared corn fields ready for the settlers to plant. The settlers were, however, always on their guard against attack. Whether in the field or wood, at church or at town meeting, each had his gun by his side. Their leader in arms was Captain Miles Standish, who, like Captain John Smith, was a brave and skilful soldier.

Friendly Indians. — The colonists were surprised on a fair morning toward the end of March, while many were still sick, at the sudden appearance of a solitary Indian in their village. He advanced boldly, and gave them the good old English greeting of "Welcome!" He proved to be a chief from the far-off Maine coast who was visiting Indians nearby. His name was Samoset. He had learned English from the fishing vessels that annually visited his region. A few days afterward Samoset reappeared, bringing an Indian named Squanto, the only survivor of the tribe that had formerly

inhabited the region around Plymouth. Squanto had once been captured and carried to England and had learned English. Samoset and Squanto brought a chieftain named Massasoit to visit the white men. In this way the Indians of the neighborhood became friendly with the settlers. Squanto made his home with the Pilgrims. He was their interpreter, explaining what the Indians said, and telling the Indians what the Pilgrims said. He also taught them how to hunt, and where to get fish, and helped them to procure corn and furs from the Indians. He showed them how to plant corn, placing a fish in each hole in order to fertilize the poor soil.

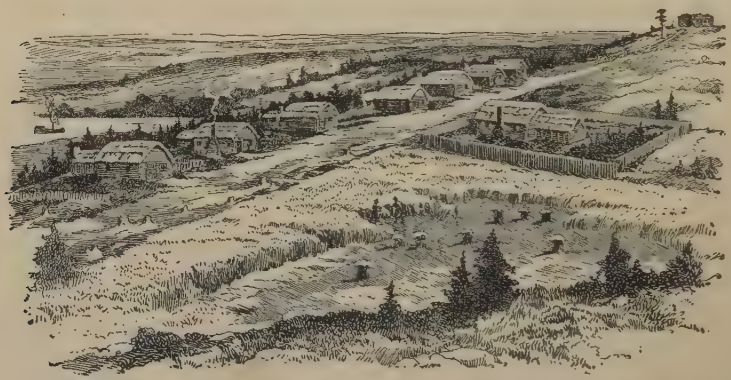


A Piece of Wampum

A New Kind of Money. — In trading with the Indians the colonists learned to use, in place of money, strings of beads made from clam-shells. The shells were first broken into small pieces, then chipped and ground into a round form. A hole was bored through the center, and finally the polished beads were strung together on fibers of hemp or on sinews of deer. Six white beads, or three purple beads, were counted as worth a penny.

The First Thanksgiving Day. — The settlers at first had no horses or oxen or even plows, but many of them were farmers and they were soon able to raise corn, wheat, rye, barley, and peas enough for their wants. When their first harvest was gathered, they decided to set apart a few days for rest and thanksgiving. Four hunters obtained enough game in one day to supply the colony for nearly a week. Massasoit and his tribe were asked to join them in the season of festivity. Ninety Indians came to Plymouth. These native guests remained three days. They contributed five deer as

their share. The Indians amused the white men with wild, frolicsome games, and the settlers in turn entertained them with military tactics and evolutions. Each day was opened with a religious service. This was the first Thanksgiving in New England. In 1623 the settlers were made happy by a rain which came in time to save their corn from drought, and they again set apart a special day for Thanksgiving. In this manner the new custom of a Thanksgiving time each fall grew up.



Copyright, 1891, by A. S. Burbank

A View of Plymouth in 1622

End of the Partnership. — Emigrants joined the Pilgrims during the following years, so that the colony increased in numbers. The newcomers were in part from John Robinson's church in Leyden, and in part directly from England. In 1624 some cattle were brought into the settlement. In one way, however, the colony did not seem successful. The colonists could find little except lumber or beaver skins to send to their partners in London. In 1627 they purchased the shares held there, agreeing to pay the London merchants in nine annual instalments. The Pilgrims managed to keep their agreement by establishing posts on the Kennebec

River, Penobscot Bay, and the Connecticut River, from which they carried on a trade in furs with the more distant Indians.

Dividing the Land. — The system of joint labor on common fields which had prevailed during the early years came to an end at about the same time. The better lands near Plymouth were divided by lot among the settlers in twenty-acre portions. The poorer land and the meadows at some distance away were left in common for a few years longer. The domestic animals, also owned in common, were distributed. There was not much to divide. Every thirteen persons secured a cow and two goats in the division.

PLYMOUTH ROCK
The monument covers the spot on which tradition says the Pilgrims landed

Growth of Plymouth. — The people who came later took up lands lying along the coast north and south of Plymouth and sometimes at a considerable distance inland. For a time such frontier settlers took part in the town meetings at Plymouth and attended church there, but within a few years separate towns were organized and new churches built. An emigrant ship bound for Virginia was driven ashore at Plymouth. A few who "carried themselves very orderly" were allowed to remain, while the others, being "untoward people," were compelled to go on to Virginia. By 1643 there were ten towns in Plymouth colony, and a total population of 3,000. The town of Plymouth remained the center of the colony, the residence of the governor, and the place where the colonial assembly of delegates from the other towns held its sessions.

QUESTIONS

1. What did the Separatists or Independents in England want to do? How were they treated when they tried to organize their own churches? Where did some of them go? Why did they soon grow discontented in the new location? Where did they decide to go?

2. Why were the Separatists who came to America called Pilgrims? How did they obtain money to pay their passage and start the settlement? Who were the leaders? Did all start from Holland?

THE "MAYFLOWER"
From the model in the Smithsonian Institute at Washington

3. Where had the Pilgrims planned to settle? Where did they decide to settle? Why did they choose Plymouth?

4. What did the Pilgrims do the first winter? How many lived till spring? Why had they met with such hardships and losses? In what ways did the Indians aid them?

5. What is the origin of Thanksgiving Day?

6. How did the Pilgrims finally arrange terms with their London partners? Was this the original plan?

7. What progress had the colony made by 1643?

EXERCISES

1. How do the terms that the Pilgrims made with their partners in London differ from those that the Virginians made with the Virginia Company?

2. Learn all you can about Thanksgiving customs. Compare the mode of keeping the day now with the first Thanksgiving Day.

Important Date:

1620. The Pilgrims begin a colony at Plymouth.

CHAPTER VI

THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW ENGLAND

The Puritans or Nonconformists. — Many people in England sympathized with the Pilgrims in the desire that the church be "purified" of most of its ceremonies. For this reason they were called Puritans. They did not separate from the church, but often refused to worship as the law required. In other words, they would not "conform," and were also called "Nonconformists." This made King James very angry, and he threatened to drive them out of the kingdom if they did not conform.

King and Parliament. — The Puritans, and many other Englishmen, did not approve of the manner in which King James spent the royal income. Part of the money came from taxes or dues which the king had no right to collect without asking parliament. When his requests were laid before it, some members were sure to complain of what he was doing. He therefore seldom called parliament together. King James died before the quarrel became serious.

Charles I tries to rule without Parliament. — Charles I, who became king in 1625, quarrelled with parliament more violently than his father. When he needed money, he also ordered the sheriffs to collect sums, which he called "loans," from all persons rich enough to pay. If they refused to pay, the royal officers threw them into prison. In 1628 parliament asked Charles to sign the "Petition of Right," which was really a promise not to do any of these things again. When he did not keep his promise, the quarrel grew

fiercer than ever, and Charles dismissed parliament, resolving not to call it together again.

Puritans begin to think of Emigration. — Charles also saw to it that the laws about worship were carried out, whether the people liked the laws or not. The Puritans, accordingly, had a double reason to be discontented with the way matters were going in England. Many began to think of imitating the Pilgrims and emigrating to America. Several, of whom John Endicott was the leader, had already obtained lands north of the Plymouth settlement, extending as far as the present boundary of New Hampshire. They had also formed the Massachusetts Bay Company, hoping to make profits from the fisheries and fur trade as well as to settle their lands.

JOHN WINTHROP

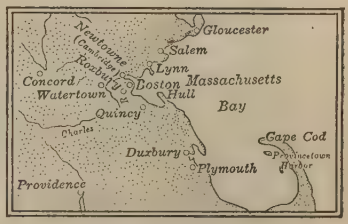
After the original in the Massachusetts Senate Chamber

The Massachusetts Bay Company. — In 1629, after Charles had angrily dismissed parliament, a large number of influential Puritans resolved to emigrate to the lands of the Massachusetts Bay Company. Among them were some of the principal men in the company. The other members agreed that those who went should control the company's affairs. This was better than trying to manage the settlement from England, three thousand miles away, as had been done at first in the case of Jamestown. John Winthrop was chosen governor.

The First Emigration. — The emigration of Puritans began in the spring of 1630. Before the year was over about two thousand crossed to the Massachusetts shore. Many were "country gentlemen," well-to-do landowners, like Winthrop,

who could pay their own expenses and subscribe something toward the expenses of the enterprise.

Beginnings of Boston. — The settlers scattered in small groups along the shore of Massachusetts Bay from Salem southward. Winthrop chose for his home land where Boston now stands. On one side was an arm of the bay, on the other the Charles River. Excellent springs furnished pure water. Others settled near Winthrop on trails worn by deer or Indians along the wood-covered hills. Boston soon became the chief town of the Massachusetts Bay colony. Within a year the colonists had begun villages near Salem and Boston, among them Lynn, Charlestown, and Newtowne, afterwards called Cambridge. The region seemed beautiful to the newcomers. Winthrop wrote to his wife, who did not leave England with the first group, "We are here in a paradise. Though we have not beef and mutton, yet (God be praised) we want them not; our Indian corn answers for all. Yet here is fowl and fish in great plenty."



COUNTRY ABOUT MASSACHUSETTS BAY

Troubles come. — The first houses were log huts, the roofs thatched with long grasses, and the chimneys made of sticks coated with mud. Unfortunately the colonists arrived too late to gain a harvest the first season. Their supplies ran low, and they were obliged to live on clams, mussels, and fish, which were plentiful in the bay. It looked as if they would have a starving time, like the Jamestown settlers, and Governor Winthrop appointed February 22, 1631, as a fast day. But the vessel they had sent to England for supplies arrived in time to turn the fast into a festival of thanksgiving.

The First Winter. — The settlers did not escape other hardships common to every new country. Before the first winter had even begun 200 died. The others did not falter. Only a few gave up the struggle and returned to England. Their places were soon filled, for King Charles's tyrannical acts drove hundreds to emigrate to Massachusetts. Within ten years the number reached fully 20,000. This is called the "Great Emigration."

PURITAN COSTUMES

The Puritans become "Congregationalists." — The Puritans who settled in Massachusetts were as sure they were right as those in authority in England were that the Church there was right. Not long after the Puritans landed they began to manage their religious affairs much like the Pilgrims. They did not, however, become Separatists in the sense that they thought the government should not meddle in religious matters. They only separated from the English Church. But they believed firmly that the settlers should unite in the same church in Massachusetts. Questions which in England would be decided by the bishops or other clergy were decided in New England by the meeting or congregation in each town. For this reason the people were called "Congregationalists." They expected every one who wished to remain in their towns to attend the services which their congregations ordered. A person who was absent any Sunday without excuse was fined.

Roger Williams. — In 1631 Roger Williams, a young Welsh clergyman, who had been graduated at the University of Cambridge, England, came to Massachusetts Bay. He had an unusually active mind and often reached conclusions which startled other men in the settlements, especially the officers of the Massachusetts Bay Company. For example, he declared that the king had no right to grant lands in America, because these lands belonged to the Indians, and should be bought from them. In speaking about the subject he treated the names of both King Charles and King James with scant respect. This alarmed the officers of the company, who feared that the king might be offended and might take away their charter.

ROGER WILLIAMS
After the Statue at Providence

Williams an Exile from Massachusetts. — Williams was really a Separatist and tried for a time to live at Plymouth. Finally he became pastor of the church at Salem. There he taught that the government had no right to interfere in religion and that no one should be forced to attend church. In 1635 the officers of the Massachusetts Bay colony at Boston decided to send him back to England, but they first gave him ample time to settle his affairs at Salem. Before the day appointed for his departure, he fled through the woods, taking refuge among the Indians near the head of Narragansett Bay. He had often visited the Indians, could speak their language, and was looked upon by them as a friend.

Beginnings of Rhode Island. — The Indians gave him a hearty welcome, took him into their wigwams, and shared their scanty supplies of food with him. In the spring a few followers from Salem joined him, and together they marked out the site for a new settlement beyond the territories of

either Massachusetts Bay or Plymouth. They called it Providence, believing that a good Providence had guided them to so excellent a location. Roger Williams paid the Indians $150 for the land, which seemed to the Indians a great sum. Other exiles from Massachusetts founded three more towns, including Newport, on Rhode Island in Narragansett Bay. In 1643 Williams went to England and obtained for these towns the right to rule themselves. This guarded against the danger that the Plymouth or Massachusetts Bay governments would attempt to rule them. Such were the beginnings of Rhode Island.

COUNTRY ABOUT NARRAGANSETT BAY

The First Emigrants from Massachusetts. — The year Williams was expelled from Massachusetts, a company of one hundred men, women, and children, under the leadership of Thomas Hooker, pastor of the church at Newtowne, left the colony for the Connecticut River valley. Why they went is uncertain. The other Massachusetts people were sorry to see them go. The main reason, probably, was the reports which they heard of the fertility of the lands in the valley of the Connecticut. They had no difficulty in selling their lands in Newtowne to newcomers from England.

Founding of Connecticut. — Hooker and his companions started on their journey early in June, 1636. Each carried his pack, arms, and the tools which he needed. They drove with them a herd of cattle. Their route lay through the unbroken wilderness, with only a compass to guide them. They camped in the open fields. Finally they reached the broad valley where Hartford now stands. Other groups

founded Windsor and Wethersfield, and, farther up the Connecticut River, Springfield. Springfield remained a part of the Massachusetts Bay colony, while the towns farther south were united in a separate colony called Connecticut, from the river which flowed past them. Within two years 800 people had moved to the Connecticut Valley. A separate colony was founded at New Haven by a group, mainly from London, under the leadership of Theophilus Eaton and John Davenport.

New Hampshire. — While these larger settlements were being made, others were begun in New Hampshire at Dover, Portsmouth, and Exeter. The Massachusetts Bay Company ruled these for a time, but afterwards they were combined by order of the English king into the province of New Hampshire.

The New Englanders govern themselves. — The New England colonists, like the Virginians, had already learned how to govern themselves. They brought with them many useful laws and customs. In the Massachusetts Bay settlements they also took rules from the Bible and treated them as laws. The people of New Haven went further, pledging one another to live according to the laws set forth in the Old Testament. At first they did not allow trial by jury because they found no mention of it in the Bible. If new laws were needed, these were talked about and decided upon in assemblies representing the citizens. There were also meetings of all the citizens of each town to consider its special business.

Who were Voters in Massachusetts. — According to the charter of the company which founded the colony, the members or freemen of the company were to manage its affairs. By the end of the first year there were 2,000 persons in the colony, but only 12 freemen or members. The other men did not like to be ruled by a few, and soon 109 asked to be admitted as freemen. Fearing that they would leave the settlements if their request was not granted, the leaders con-

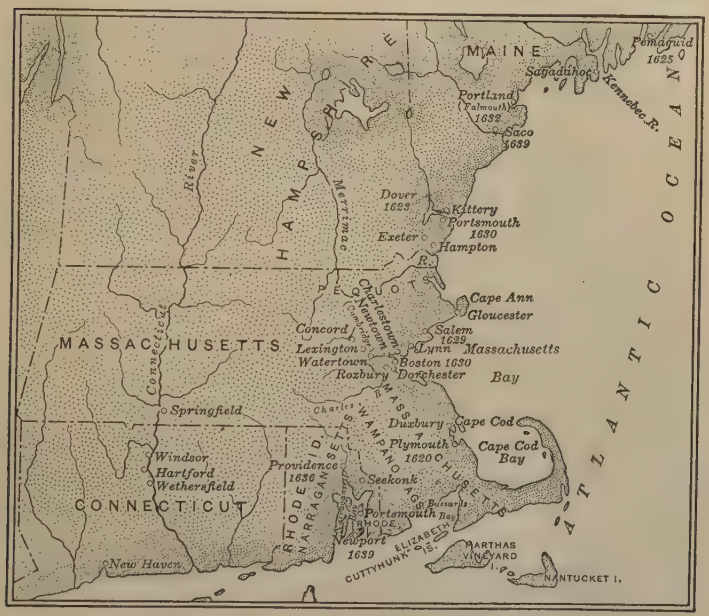
cluded to admit them, but decided at the same time that only church members could become freemen. Consequently in Massachusetts for many years it was necessary to be a church member in order to vote. ' This was just as much a union of church and state as existed in England, except that the church differed from the one ordered by the English law, and the state was really a little republic and not a kingdom.

A General Assembly. — After a while there were so many freemen in Massachusetts that they could not attend a general meeting of the colony. Besides, some lived too far away. They therefore used the plan of representation which their English forefathers had invented long before, and which the Virginians began to use in 1619. Within a few years they also began to vote by ballot for the governor and for the representatives or deputies to the assembly or "General Court."

The New England Confederation. — Each of these colonies — Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, and New Haven — managed its affairs separately. Fear of the Indians and of the Dutch settlers in the Hudson Valley, led in 1643 to a union for common defense. They called their league "The United Colonies of New England." Eight commissioners, two from each colony, were given charge of matters of common interest, such as war with Indian tribes. The Rhode Islanders wished to join the league, but the other colonies would not admit them. Brewster of Plymouth said, "Concerning the Rhode Islanders, we have no conversation with them further than necessity or humanity may require."

The league lasted forty years. The only serious Indian war which it managed took place in 1675 and 1676. King Philip was chief of one of the tribes, and so the struggle was called King Philip's War. The Indians fell upon a dozen frontier villages, burning the houses and killing the inhabitants. As soon as the soldiers of the league were assembled, the savages were defeated. The captives were sold as slaves.

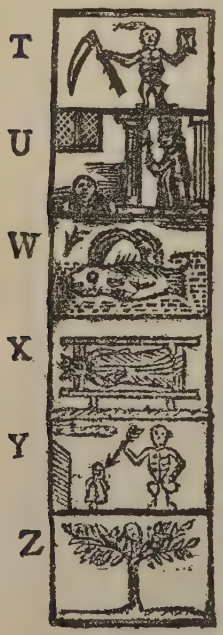
King Philip was killed, and his followers were scattered. A short time after the league came to an end Plymouth colony was united with Massachusetts Bay. New Haven had been joined with Connecticut in 1664.



NEW ENGLAND IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Education in Massachusetts. — Several of the leading men in the Massachusetts Bay colony had been educated in the English universities, especially at Cambridge. They expected their pastors to explain the Bible to the people, and thought that they could not discover the true meaning unless they could read it in the language in which it was written — the Old Testament in Hebrew and the New Testament in Greek. Besides, like many others in England and Europe, these Massachusetts leaders wished educated men to read Latin, the language of the ancient Romans. Brewster of Plymouth

had a library of about 400 books, 62 of which were in Latin. Bradford could read not only Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, but also French and Dutch. It was not surprising, therefore, that among the first things the colonists cared for were schools and a college. In 1647 they decided that every town with 50 families should support a teacher. If a town had 100 families, it should provide for what would now be called a high school. The Massachusetts assembly gave 1,000 acres of land to each of the chief towns for the support of these schools.



FACSIMILE OF A PAGE FROM THE "NEW ENGLAND PRIMER"

Harvard College founded.—Six years after John Winthrop and his companions landed on the shores of Massachusetts, the General Court voted to use part of the money which it collected from the settlers to found a college at Newtowne. John Harvard, one of the clergymen of the colony, dying two years later, left all his books and half his property to the college. The college was named for him, and the name of the town was changed to Cambridge in memory of the older university town of England. Families in Massachusetts and Connecticut were asked to give a quarter of a bushel of corn every year for the college.

Education at New Haven. — The founders of New Haven also planned for a college, but at first they could spare no money. They had brought a teacher with them, so that a school was begun at once. Finally one of their number, Edward Hopkins, who had returned to England, bequeathed some money to the colony for the college. The best they could do even then was to open what was called the Hopkins Grammar School, in which Latin and Greek, as well as reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught.

Parliament and King Charles. — The "Great Emigration" to Massachusetts came to an end in 1641. For nearly twenty years after that time the Puritans had the upper hand in England and felt little desire to emigrate to America. They gained the advantage in this way. King Charles attempted to force the Scotch to worship in the manner ordered in England. The Scotch rose in rebellion, and Charles was obliged to call parliament together to obtain money to pay his soldiers. The members, instead of voting the money, complained of their grievances. He dismissed this "Short" Parliament, but soon called another which refused to be treated in the same way. It was nicknamed the "Long" Parliament, because it lasted almost twenty years.

Civil War in England. — In 1642 Charles and parliament quarrelled so violently that both raised armies and began a civil war. The members of the king's party were called Cavaliers, because many of them were nobles or "country gentlemen." The Puritans were nicknamed "Roundheads," because some of them cropped their hair close. The king was defeated and captured, and the government fell into the hands of the victorious Puritan army under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell. When the king stirred up civil war again, he was tried, condemned, and executed.

The Commonwealth. — Oliver Cromwell now became real ruler of England. The government was called a Common-

wealth and lasted until two years after Cromwell's death in 1658, when Charles II, son of the dead king, was called from exile to the throne.

QUESTIONS

1. Who had formed the Massachusetts Bay Company? What was the company planning to do? Why did the Puritans wish to leave England?

2. What arrangement did the members of the Massachusetts Bay Company make for those who went to America?

3. Who was the first governor of the Massachusetts settlement? Where did the Puritans make the first settlements?

4. Why did the settlers escape starving times like those in Virginia? Did they escape the other hardships of a new country?

5. How did the Puritans in Massachusetts come to think religious affairs should be managed? What name did they receive? Why this name? How did they differ from the Pilgrims in their ideas of church government?

6. What did Roger Williams teach? Why did these teachings alarm the Puritans in Massachusetts? Where did he and other exiles start a colony? What rights did they secure from England?

7. Where did Thomas Hooker and his congregation first settle? Why did they leave Massachusetts? Where did they form a new colony? What other settlements were made near the Connecticut towns?

8. Where did the New England colonists get their laws and customs? Why did the people of New Haven oppose trial by jury? How were new laws made?

9. Why did the Massachusetts Bay Company permit men who were not freemen or members to vote? Whom did they allow to become voters?

10. Why was a New England Confederation formed? What colonies composed it? What became of Plymouth and New Haven colonies? What useful work for New England did the Confederation accomplish?

11. Why were the Puritans of New England especially interested in education? What rule about schools did Massachusetts lay down for towns? Tell the story of the founding of Harvard College and the Hopkins Grammar School.

12. Why did the Puritan or "Great Emigration" come to an end about 1641?

EXERCISES

1. Find out what the constitution of your state and of the United States says about religion. Did any of the Puritan leaders hold the views which governments today maintain on this subject?

2. Find on the map, page 67, the location of the early settlements in New England, and tell why each was made and from where the settlers came.

CHAPTER VII

MARYLAND, A REFUGE FOR ENGLISH CATHOLICS

Roman Catholics in England. — The English Roman Catholics were treated even more harshly than either the Separatists or the Puritans. Not only were they forced to pay heavy fines, but any priest who celebrated mass was threatened with death. Nevertheless, influential Catholics were befriended by both James I and Charles I. Charles married a Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria, daughter of the famous Henry of Navarre, the first Bourbon king of France.

Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore

Lord Baltimore. — One of the influential Catholics whom King Charles chose to favor was Sir George Calvert, usually known by his title of Lord Baltimore. To him the king in 1632 gave 12,000 square miles of land on both sides of Chesapeake Bay. Baltimore was to pay the king one-fifth of the gold and silver which he mined, and was to send him every year two Indian arrows in proof of loyalty. The region was named "Mary Land" in honor of the queen.

Maryland. — Lord Baltimore expected to make Maryland a great family estate, but he also wished to use it as a refuge

for persecuted Catholics. Although he died before carrying out his plan, his son Cecil, the second Lord Baltimore, put it into effect. He equipped an expedition at an expense of £40,000, equal to a million dollars now, placing it under the leadership of his younger brother Leonard. The first party of emigrants was made up of about 20 country gentlemen, most of them Catholics, and about 200 artisans and laborers, chiefly Protestants. Two Jesuit priests joined the expedition as it passed the Isle of Wight.

The First Settlement. — The ships were three months on the voyage, as they followed the older route through the West Indies. They reached Maryland in the early spring of 1634. Calvert chose as a site for his first settlement a long bluff near the mouth of the Potomac River. The Indians who occupied it were glad to share even their huts and their half-planted corn fields with the well-armed white men who might defend them from the fierce Susquehannocks living farther north. They received in payment axes, hoes, knives, and some cloth. After the harvest they agreed to give the settlers all the village and the land about it. One of the priests, Father White, took possession of an Indian cabin, and, "having dressed it a little better," used it as a chapel.

A few of the Indian families remained during the first year, the men teaching the settlers to hunt deer, partridges, and turkeys. The Indian squaws taught the white women how to prepare hominy and johnny-cake before an open fire.

A Fortunate Colony. — The first settlement in Maryland was named St. Mary's for the Virgin Mary. A stockade was built around the little fort which protected the town from attack. St. Mary's was more fortunate in its beginnings than either Jamestown or Plymouth. The climate was mild and healthful, and the first harvest was good. The Indian neighbors were gentle and friendly. The colonists at the end of the first season sent corn to New England in exchange

for salt fish and other things which they needed. They also began to trade with the Virginians, obtaining cattle, sheep, hogs, and hens, with which to stock their farms.

Maryland and Virginia. — Their dealings with the Virginians were not all friendly. The lands which King Charles had given Lord Baltimore were originally a part of Virginia, and the Virginians objected to the loss. Indeed some Virginians under the leadership of William Claiborne had already settled on Kent Island in Chesapeake Bay and were carrying on a profitable trade with the Indians. They soon quarrelled with the settlers at St. Mary's, and a petty warfare was kept up for years, until the king decided in favor of Lord Baltimore.

EARLY SETTLEMENTS IN MARYLAND

A "Proprietary" Colony. — Lord Baltimore was the "Proprietor" or owner of Maryland. The country, therefore, formed a huge private estate, with the colonists as tenants. The proprietor exercised the rights of government over the colonists, much as if he were king. For this reason such a colony was called "Proprietary," just as Virginia was a "Royal" colony, and Massachusetts Bay a "Charter" colony. In Maryland the proprietor appointed the governor. He gave the settlers lands on easy terms, collecting one shilling rent for each fifty acres. Plantations of a thousand acres or more were called manors. A colonist who held a manor enjoyed certain powers exercised by nobles in England, act-

ing as judge in case of disputes between his tenants, and punishing their offenses.

A Representative Assembly. — Lord Baltimore had promised to ask the opinions of his colonists in making laws, and by his orders an assembly met in 1635. The laws which were framed were sent to England for his approval. With the governor's consent they could be carried out without waiting for the answer, although the proprietor always kept the right to veto or forbid laws. The earlier assemblies included all the freemen of the colony, while the later ones, as the settlements increased in number, were made up of representatives, like the assemblies of Virginia and Massachusetts.

Religious Toleration. — Lord Baltimore sent Protestants as well as Catholics to Maryland. It was his wish that both should dwell together in peace. He gave strict orders to his governors and to the priests not to offend the Protestants. For a long time, however, the officers, as well as the clergy, were all Catholics.

In 1649 Lord Baltimore's policy of religious toleration was embodied in a law, by vote of the assembly and assent of the proprietor. This was the well-known Toleration Act, which declared "that no person or persons whatsoever within this province, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, shall from henceforth be any ways troubled . . . or molested . . . in respect to his or her religion." Lord Baltimore did not separate the church from the state, as did Roger Williams in Rhode Island, for in Maryland the government supported either Catholic or Protestant worship, sometimes both.

How the Colony first looked. — Many Puritans who had settled in Virginia, but who were not well treated, moved into Maryland after the Toleration Act. Some of them founded Annapolis, a town which later became the capital of the colony. Most of the people were scattered along the coasts or inland upon manors, plantations, and farms. St.

Mary's was little more than thirty farm houses straggling for five miles along the banks of the St. Mary's River. Chesapeake Bay, with its many coves, inlets, and rivers, served in place of roads. Ships, as in Virginia, came to the wharves of the farmers and exchanged English wares for tobacco and

BALTIMORE IN 1752
After an engraving in Scharf's *History of Baltimore*

corn. Nearly a century passed before a town was founded at the head of the bay and named Baltimore in honor of the proprietor.

QUESTIONS

1. How were Roman Catholics treated in England?
2. What territory in America did Lord Baltimore obtain? What did he wish to do with this? What kind of emigrants did he obtain?
3. How long did it take to make the voyage? Why did it take so long?
4. Where did Lord Baltimore's colonists settle? What bargain did they make with the Indians? In what ways did the Indians help them? Why was St. Mary's a fortunate colony?
5. What relation existed between the Proprietor of Maryland and the colonists? What privileges did the colonists enjoy?
6. What rights over his tenants did the holder of a manor have? What class in Europe did he somewhat resemble?
7. How did Lord Baltimore manage to keep religious peace in his colony? How did his method differ from the one Roger Williams put into practice in Rhode Island?

REVIEW

1. The voyages of the three great discoverers — Diaz, Columbus, and Magellan.
2. The conquest of Mexico by Cortés and of Peru by Pizarro.
3. The exploration of North America by De Soto and Coronado. The discovery of the Mississippi by De Soto and of the St. Lawrence by Cartier.
4. The Spanish settlements in the New World, especially St. Augustine in Florida.
5. The first settlements of each of the rivals in North America.
6. The barriers keeping English and Dutch explorers from the interior of North America.
7. The French explorers of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley — Champlain, Marquette, and La Salle.
8. The settlement at Jamestown. The first work of a trading company and its laborers.
9. Virginia's growth into a prosperous colony. Finding new laborers.
10. English laws and customs carried to Virginia.
11. The Separatists become exiles. Their settlement at Plymouth.
12. The treatment of the Puritans in England.
13. The plan of the Massachusetts Bay Company in America.
14. The first Great Emigration, 1630–1641.
15. Exiles from Massachusetts found Rhode Island.
16. Emigrants from Massachusetts found Connecticut.
17. The governments of New England — town, colony, and confederation.
18. The provisions made for education in the colonies.
19. Lord Baltimore's colony of Maryland.
20. How Lord Baltimore managed the religion of his colony.

A Maryland Shilling

CHAPTER VIII

DUTCH AND ENGLISH RIVALRIES: BEGINNINGS OF A GREAT STATE

Rivalries and Conquests. — Spaniards, Frenchmen, and Dutchmen were among the discoverers and explorers of what is now the United States. These rivals of the English also began settlements within the regions which they explored. As the English settlements grew and spread, Spanish, French, and Dutch settlements were in danger of being attacked and captured by the English. The United States, like most European countries, was to be built up in part by conquest. The Dutch were the first to suffer from this growth, or expansion, of the English settlements, and by 1664 had lost all that they claimed from Henry Hudson's discoveries.

The Dutch and the English in the East. — The Dutch and the English first came into conflict in the East Indies, where the agents of the English and the Dutch East India Companies struggled to gain the rich trade of India, China, and the Spice Islands. The Dutch drove the English away from the Spice Islands, massacring some of them at Amboyna in 1623. The English never forgot the deed, but did nothing against the Dutch until their troubles with King Charles were ended.

Founding New Amsterdam. — Henry Hudson had discovered the river which bears his name in 1609. He carried word to his employers, the merchants of the Dutch East India Company, that the Indians were ready to exchange valuable furs for knives, hatchets, beads, and similar cheap articles.

Although the East India Company took no great interest in the matter, merchants sent vessels over to the Hudson to trade with the Indians. In 1621 a Dutch West India Company was formed, mainly to plunder the Spaniards on the sea or in the West Indies, for the Dutch were again at war with Spain.[1] This company received the sole right to the lands about the Hudson. Its agents built a trading post at the lower end of Manhattan Island, which soon became known as New Amsterdam, being named for the largest city in Holland. They established another post on the site of Albany, and called it Fort Orange. The whole colony was called New Netherland. Peter Minuit, who was sent over as governor of the colony, bought Manhattan Island from the Indians for about $24 worth of cloth, hatchets, kettles, knives, and other things. This seems a small price for the land on which New York City stands, but the Indians were well pleased with the bargain.

Dutch Patroon or Landed Proprietor

New Amsterdam, like Jamestown at first, was the station or colony of a trading company rather than a real settlement. A few families arrived in 1623, and others followed year by year. Most of their members were employed by the company or rented farms, or "boweries," from it. Even the clergyman who "comforted the sick" and preached on Sunday was paid by the company.

Patroons. — Certain members of the West India Company were anxious that the settlement of their lands should go forward faster. It was accordingly agreed in 1629 that any member who should found a settlement of fifty adults within

[1] See *Introductory American History*, pages 210, 226.

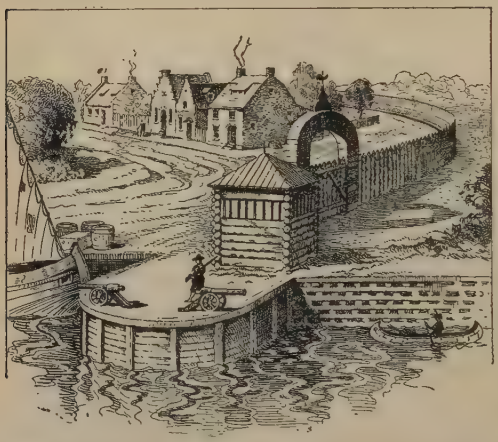
four years might have a tract extending sixteen miles along the Hudson River, or eight miles, if it lay on both sides. No limits were set showing how far back these tracts should run. If the founder of the settlements, who was called a patroon or lord, should send out more colonists, he could have more land. The colonists were farm laborers or renters on the patroon's land. They could not hunt or fish without his consent. They must grind their grain at his mill and buy their cloth at the company's storehouse, for they were not allowed to weave. They were forbidden to trade with the Indians, though most of the early colonists soon obtained the permission of the patroon, and turned fur traders.

ANCIENT VAN RENSSELAER MANSION
At Greenbush, near Albany, N. Y.

Such a plan was not likely to succeed, especially when colonists might obtain land on better terms from the English. The most successful patroonship, or manor, was founded by Van Rensselaer, and included a region equal to two modern counties around Fort Orange. The settlement soon consisted of twenty-five or thirty houses scattered along the Hudson. It was called Rensselaerwyck.

The Dutch and the Indians. — The Dutch settlers, like the company which sent them from Europe, were interested chiefly in trade, and especially the fur trade. If all had been content with that, their relations with the Indians would have remained friendly, because they would not have desired to

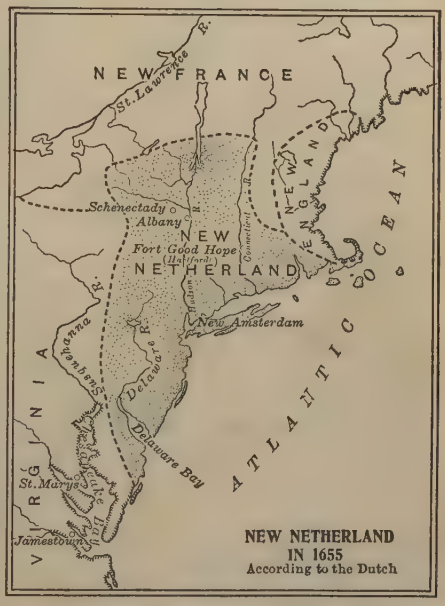
occupy any of the Indian hunting grounds. But as soon as the good farm lands on Manhattan Island were taken, and the settlers sought more land east and west of the Hudson, the Indians were alarmed and angry. Both settlers and savages were guilty of murders. The Indians were made more reckless by the liquor, or "firewater," which they bought of the traders. The consequence was that for years war raged between the settlers and the Indians, and that the Dutch held little but Fort Amsterdam on Manhattan Island. A wall of earth, four or five feet high, thrown up inside a closely-set row of pointed stakes twice as high, was built across the island north of the fields near the fort. This palisade formed some protection against an attack from the Indians, and later gave its name to Wall Street.



Wall Street Palisade from the East River

New Settlements. — In 1646 peace was made with the Indians and the settlements began to spread once more. Weehawken and Hoboken were two of those on the west shore of the Hudson. Among the villages across the East River on Long Island was Breuckelen, or Brooklyn. The Dutch were not the only ones to emigrate to the company's territories. So many English and French came that the decisions of the company's officers were published in those languages as well as in Dutch.

Beyond the Delaware, where the Dutch had trading posts, the Swedes attempted in 1638 to found a colony. They too had a West India Company, and like the Dutch were mainly interested in the fur trade. The Dutch regarded the Swedes as intruders and in 1655 took possession of their settlements.



Trading Stations. — As the Dutch were interested chiefly in the fur trade, and as rivers offered the only routes for transporting furs, the Dutch tried to take possession of important points along the rivers. They had Fort Orange at the head of the deeper waters of the Hudson, and, somewhat later, pushed up the Mohawk River to the rapids, where Schenectady stands, and built another post. They also built a fort at the junction of the Schuylkill and the Delaware near the site of Philadelphia. They had built Fort Good Hope on the site of Hartford before Thomas Hooker and his followers arrived.

The English Closing In. — The presence of the Dutch on the Connecticut injured the fur trade of the Plymouth colony because the fur-bearing animals of the region near the coast were soon captured and it was necessary to go deeper into the woods for others. Even before the Newtowne congregation founded Hartford, the son of Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts Bay seized the mouth of the Connecticut

and thus prevented the Dutch from using it as a trade route. Still worse for the Dutch was the settlement of Springfield, which had been the meeting place of their traders and the Indians for ten years. Meanwhile English settlements were approaching New Amsterdam along Long Island Sound, and were within twenty-five miles of it by 1639. The English were also threatening the Dutch from the south. By 1631 Claiborne was pushing up the Susquehanna from Kent Island, in order to reach the sources of the supply of furs west of where the Dutch went to obtain them.

Causes of War with the Dutch. — The troubles between the Dutch and the English came to a head when the Netherlands and England went to war about the rights of trade on the ocean. Most of the ocean freight business was at that time in the hands of Dutch shipowners. The English parliament tried to give English ships a better chance by passing a law that goods from other countries should be brought to England in English ships if not in the ships of the country sending them. This law, called a Navigation Act, further said that goods not produced in Europe, that is, goods from colonies or trading stations in the East or West, must be brought into England in English ships or the ships of the English colonists. This Act prevented the Dutch from carrying goods from other nations, or even the spices of the East Indies, to England or the English colonies. This and other causes of quarrel brought on war.

New Amsterdam in Danger. — Never had the English Channel seen such fighting, not even in the time of the Spanish Armada. The hero of the Dutch was Van Tromp, while the English hero was Blake, who had been one of Cromwell's generals. The English sent several ships to New England, expecting to raise a small army and capture New Amsterdam. The Massachusetts Bay people refused assistance, on the ground that the Dutch had not injured them. News

soon came that the war was over, and so New Amsterdam was saved for a while.

A New Attack on the Dutch. — When Charles II became king in England, parliament made more laws about trade on the sea, forbidding all foreign ships, the Dutch included, to trade with the English colonies. European goods must first be sent to England, in order that the English merchant and shipowner might share in the profits of the trade. The Dutch submitted, but soon discovered that it was impossible to

NEW AMSTERDAM IN 1655
After Van der Donck's *New Netherland*

satisfy the English, who next robbed them of their colony. The king's brother James was "mad for war" with them, and asked Charles to grant him all the Dutch territory. Charles, generous with what he did not possess, agreed, giving James the whole region between the Connecticut and the Delaware, without even mentioning the Dutch.

Seizure of New Amsterdam. — A few months later, in 1664, four ships of war, with many soldiers on board, appeared before New Amsterdam. The English demanded the surrender of the place, but the governor, Peter Stuyvesant, tore up the letter containing the demand and attempted to defend the fort. His councillors, thinking that it was hopeless to fight, made him piece together the fragments. When they

saw the terms which the English offered, they compelled him to agree to them.

Beginnings of New York. — Colonel Nicolls, the English commander, changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York, and the name of Fort Orange to Albany, in honor of James, who was both Duke of York and Duke of Albany. Stuyvesant continued to live on his farm, called the Great Bowery, until his death. The old church in the fort was used by the Dutch Sunday mornings, by the French Protestants at mid-day, and by the English in the afternoon. The English mode of government was introduced within a few years, including trial by jury and representative assemblies. The original Dutch inhabitants soon began to learn the English language, and became much like their English neighbors.

PETER STUYVESANT
After the portrait in the possession of the New York Historical Society

New Jersey. — Before Colonel Nicolls had reached New Amsterdam the Duke of York had given to two friends, Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, all the land from the Hudson to the Delaware. It was named New Jersey because Sir George Carteret had bravely defended the island of Jersey against the Puritans during the English civil war. The proprietors were eager to attract settlers to their territory, and promised that each should worship as he wished. They offered 200 acres in every community for the support of the minister whom the settlers should choose.

The Dutch at New York again. — The seizure of New Amsterdam hastened on war between England and the Netherlands. The Dutch made no attempt to recover New

York. Several years later, in another war with the English, they did recapture New York and held it for 15 months. They were obliged to restore it when peace was made. This was the last war between the Dutch and the English, who had already begun to see that the French and not the Dutch were their most dangerous rivals.

THE STADT HUYS, NEW YORK, 1679

The English hold the Atlantic Shore. — The capture of New Netherland gave the English control of the whole Atlantic coast from the St. Croix River to the St. Mary's on the boundary of Spanish Florida. The settlement of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and the Carolinas, which was begun soon after New Amsterdam was taken, strengthened their hold on all this territory, for unoccupied land was always in danger of being seized by some rival nation.

QUESTIONS

1. What rivals had the English in colonizing what is now the United States? Which was the first rival to lose its American territories?

2. For what purpose was the Dutch West India Company formed? Why did it want the lands about the Hudson? What settlements did the company make? In what ways was the Dutch colony at New Amsterdam like Jamestown?

3. How did the West India Company attempt to settle its land faster? How well did the plan succeed?

4. Why did the Dutch have trouble with the Indians?

5. What settlements did the Dutch make near New Amsterdam? Who besides the Dutch settled in New Netherland? What outlying trading posts did the Dutch found?

6. At what points were the English settlers and traders closing in on the Dutch in New Netherland?

7. What restrictions did parliament place on the commerce of the English colonists? Whose trade did parliament intend to check?

8. What changes did the English make after the conquest of the Dutch colony?

9. Who obtained the Duke of York's lands between the Hudson and the Delaware? What special privileges did the proprietors of New Jersey allow their settlers?

10. How much of the Atlantic coast did England hold after the conquest of New Netherland?

EXERCISE

Locate on a map (see map, page 92) the English settlements which were nearest New Amsterdam on the east and on the west, including Claiborne's trade route on the Susquehanna.

Important Date:

1664. The English conquest of the Dutch colony of New Netherland.

CHAPTER IX

A SECOND GREAT EMIGRATION

Virginia and the Commonwealth. — While civil war was raging in England few men thought of founding colonies in America. After the king's party was overthrown, many cavaliers emigrated to Virginia. In 1649, 330 refugees arrived on one ship. Supported by them, Sir William Berkeley, the governor, and the General Assembly condemned the execution of Charles I and declared their loyalty to his son Charles II as king. The victorious Puritans and their parliament sent out an expedition to bring the defiant colony to terms. When it reached Virginia in 1652, Berkeley put the militia, 1,200 strong, under arms and prepared to resist. The leaders of the expedition, partly by a show of force, partly by willingness to grant generous terms, persuaded the Virginians to promise obedience to the Commonwealth.

Emigration of Royalists to Virginia. — The emigration of the royalist party to Virginia, however, continued. A writer living at the time spoke of "civil, honorable, and men of great estates" flocking in. One of them was John Washington, great-grandfather of George Washington. Within twenty years the population increased from 15,000 to 40,000. After 1660, when Charles II was restored to his father's throne, fewer of the royalist party came over.

The West Indies.[1] — Another region to which many emi-

[1] It should be remembered that since the occupation of Porto Rico and the building of the Panama Canal the history of the West India Islands has become of great interest to the people of the United States.

grants went from England at about this time was the West Indies. The Spaniards did not make as much use of these islands as they did of Mexico and Peru, but they wished to keep out the sailors of other nations. Adventurers from everywhere sailed the West Indian seas. They attacked Spanish treasure ships, loaded with gold and silver from the mines, and even cities like Vera Cruz and Panama. To obtain food they hunted wild cattle, smoking the meat over wood fires

called *boucanes*. This gave them the name "buccaneers." They were also called "freebooters" or "filibusters," from their swift ships, *vliebooten* or "flying boats." Some of them settled on unoccupied islands, the French at Martinique, Guadaloupe, and western Haiti,[1] the Dutch at Curaçao, and the English at Barbados. About 1640 these settlers began to

[1] Columbus called this island Española, or "Little Spain." One of the chief towns was named Santo Domingo, and in time the English, French, and even the Spanish gave that name to the entire island. Early in the nineteenth century some leading writers on geography suggested the use of the original Indian name, Haiti, which meant "mountainous country," and this is now the usual one for the island.

raise cane sugar. The Dutch, however, were mainly interested in smuggling. Their settlement at Curaçao was the great market at which to obtain the products of Europe and the East Indies. Even Spanish colonists traded there, because the merchants of Spain asked higher prices than the Dutch.

Jamaica. — At first the settlements in the West Indies received little help from European governments. A change took place under Oliver Cromwell and the Commonwealth. While England was at war with Spain Cromwell sent Admiral Penn and General Venables to attack the Spaniards in the West Indies. They failed to capture Haiti, but took Jamaica. One of its first governors was a Welshman named Morgan, who had begun his career as a hardy buccaneer. Planters came in from Barbados. Cromwell sent over from Scotland and Ireland many who opposed the Commonwealth.

Dissenters. — Religious troubles again became the principal reason for emigration as soon as Charles II was made king. He was surrounded by his father's friends and supporters, who insisted that the rules of the church made under Queen Elizabeth, James I, and Charles I, should be enforced. Rather than submit, 2,000 clergymen gave up their parishes. As they dissented from the methods of worship ordered by law, they were from that time commonly called "Dissenters." The most numerous were the Presbyterians, the Independents or Congregationalists, and the Baptists. If they attempted to meet for worship, they were thrown into prison.

A Quaker of the 17th Century

The Society of Friends. — Another group of Dissenters was the Society of Friends, or the Quakers. The founder of

the Quakers was George Fox. He thought that all God's children should be treated as brethren. He spoke with no greater respect to the magistrate than to ordinary men, refusing to give any man a title, and addressing each with "thee" and "thou." He and his followers would not take off their hats even in a court room. They believed so firmly in the brotherhood of man that they would neither bear arms themselves nor pay for the support of soldiers. As they would not obey laws of which their consciences disapproved, they were often arrested and thrown into prison. About 3,000 were arrested in the first two years of the reign of Charles II.

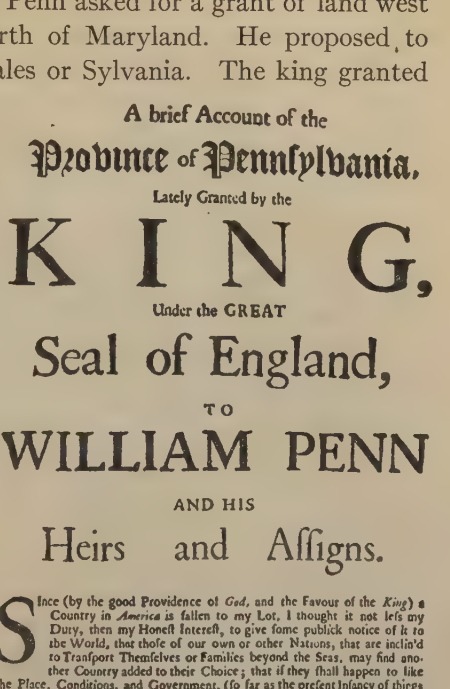
WILLIAM PENN

William Penn.—The most prominent Quaker in England at this time was William Penn, son of Admiral Penn, who was a favorite with King Charles II. The old admiral was at first enraged when his son became a Quaker, but finally forgave him. On the death of the admiral in 1670, William inherited the family estate, which gave him an income equal to $25,000 or $30,000 at the present day.

Six years later Penn purchased a share in New Jersey, which had already become a refuge for distressed Quakers. They settled mostly in the western part of the colony along the Delaware. By 1682 Penn and other wealthy Quakers owned all the shares of the original proprietors. Many Puritans had also come in from Connecticut and had selected farms in northern New Jersey.

The "Holy Experiment."—Meanwhile Penn had become interested in another plan of colony building, which he called his "Holy Experiment." As King Charles owed him money

borrowed from his father, Penn asked for a grant of land west of the Delaware and north of Maryland. He proposed to call the country New Wales or Sylvania. The king granted the land, and insisted on the latter name, and, in honor of Admiral Penn, placed "Penn" before it, making "Pennsylvania," or "Penn's Wood."



A brief Account of the

Province of Pennsylvania,

Lately Granted by the

KING,

Under the GREAT

Seal of England,

TO

WILLIAM PENN

AND HIS

Heirs and Assigns.

SInce (by the good Providence of *God*, and the Favour of the *King*) a Country in *America* is fallen to my Lot, I thought it not less my Duty, then my Honest Interest, to give some publick notice of it to the World, that those of our own or other Nations, that are inclin'd to Transport Themselves or Families beyond the Seas, may find another Country added to their Choice; that if they shall happen to like the Place, Conditions, and Government, (so far as the present Infancy of things will allow us any prospect) they may, if they please, fix with me in the Province, hereafter described.

I. *The* KING'S *Title to this Country before he granted it.*

It is the *Jus Gentium*, or Law of Nations, that what ever Waste, or uncultured Country, is the Discovery of any Prince, it is the right of that Prince that was at the Charge of the Discovery: Now this *Province* is a Member of that part of *America*, which the King of *England's* Ancestors have been at the Charge of Discovering, and which they and he have taken great care to preserve and improve.

11. William

FIRST PAGE OF PENN'S "ACCOUNT OF PENNSYLVANIA"
Reduced facsimile

Delaware. — The year after Penn had obtained Pennsylvania from the king, he induced the king's brother, the Duke of York, to give him the land which now makes up the state of Delaware. Penn thus in 1681 and 1682 possessed all the lands along the west side of the Delaware River from its mouth almost to its source.

Penn seeks for Emigrants. — Penn expected to find many settlers among the persecuted Quakers, but he wished also to obtain other industrious persons. In order to attract them to his colony he prepared an *Account of the Province of Pennsylvania*, which he sent to many places in the British Isles. He had it translated into French, German, and Dutch, so that Europeans

might read about the enterprise, and, perhaps, come to America and join the colony.

A Proprietary Colony. — Penn was proprietor of his colony, as Lord Baltimore was of Maryland. Even before he had any settlers he wrote out a constitution, from the words of which it was clear that he was interested in something more than the profits of the enterprise. Through councils and assemblies he planned to share the management of the colony with the settlers. In the laws which he drew up he showed that he was far ahead of most men of his day. For example, prisoners were not to be tormented and starved as they were in English prisons at that time, but were to be fed and clothed. Penn believed that the aim should be to reform rather than simply to punish them.

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

The Founding of Philadelphia, 1682. — Penn sent his cousin, William Markham, to Pennsylvania in 1681 with a party of colonists. He followed, the next year, with about a hundred others, mostly Quakers from his own neighborhood in England. Others of the early settlers came from Wales and Ireland. The first party of colonists selected a site for a town about one hundred and twenty miles up the Delaware

River. Broad streets and squares were laid out in a grove of pine trees on a low bluff along the river front. Penn called his town Philadelphia, a Greek word meaning "brotherly love."

Growth of the Colony. — Penn's colony grew rapidly. As the lands about Philadelphia were soon taken, later comers scattered along the Delaware River within the limits of

FRIENDS' MEETING HOUSE AND THE OLD COURT HOUSE
Philadelphia

Delaware and eastern Pennsylvania. One of the earlier settlers wrote an account of his experiences. "I settled," he wrote, "upon my tract of land, which I purchased of the Proprietor . . . and set up a house and a corn mill which was very useful to the country for several miles round. But there not being plenty of horses, people generally brought their corn on their backs many miles; I remember one man who had a bull so gentle that he used to bring his corn on him instead of a horse." Many of the settlers in the first years had neither horses nor plows. As the colonists were industrious and thrifty there was no starving time in Pennsylvania.

Germantown. — Among the earlier bands of settlers were twelve or thirteen German families, mostly weavers, under

the leadership of Francis Daniel Pastorius. They reached Philadelphia in 1683 and were welcomed by Penn. They bought a tract of land a few miles north of the town, and began the settlement known as Germantown.

GERMANTOWN IN 1692

Penn's Treaties with the Indians. — Penn was much interested in the Indians, and often traveled among them. In June, 1683, he met a large number of chiefs and their warriors under a great elm tree near Philadelphia and made a treaty with them. The spot where this Treaty Elm stood is now marked by a monument, and is within the present limits of the city. Penn described the treaty in a letter to his friends in England, — "great promises passed between us of kindness and good neighborhood, and that the Indians and English must live in love as long as the sun gave light."

Penn purchased the land from the Indians, although the king had given it to him. He bought from a chief one tract of land as far back from the Delaware as a man could ride on horseback in two days. The chief was to receive "so much wampum, so many guns, shoes, stockings, looking-glasses, blankets, and other goods as William Penn shall please to give us."

Penn's Return to England. — Penn was obliged to return to England in 1684, and, except for a brief visit many years later, saw nothing more of his colonies. Most matters of government were left to the colonists themselves or to a commission, and later to a deputy governor who represented him as proprietor. Penn tried to manage matters by correspondence, but he was too far away.

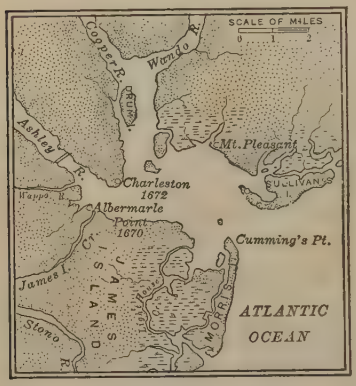
THE CAROLINA COAST

The Carolinas. — During this period of rapid emigration from England to Pennsylvania many dissenters also went to the Carolinas. The settlements in northern and southern Carolina were not planned at first, like Pennsylvania, as a refuge for the oppressed. They were more like the original settlement of Virginia. Indeed, the first settlers came from Virginia, following the Indian trails along the coast. They cleared land on the Chowan River near Albemarle Sound. They were already there when Charles II gave to eight noblemen all the territory from the southern boundary of Virginia to Spanish Florida. The region had long been known as Carolina, a name given it in honor of the king's father, Charles I.

Charleston. — The proprietors of Carolina were not content with the small colony of Virginians on the Chowan River, and in 1670 they sent to southern Carolina a larger body of settlers, partly from England and partly from Barbados. The colonists began their settlement on an excellent harbor at the

junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers. They named it for the king, Charles Town or Charleston. Some years later their settlement was moved to the site of the present city.

The colonists at Charleston remembered the fate of the French colony at Fort Caroline a hundred years before, and feared a similar attack from the Spaniards. Their fears were not groundless, for within a few weeks a Spanish vessel, sent to break up the settlement, appeared off the harbor. The Spaniards on board, finding the settlers on their guard, returned to St. Augustine without striking a blow. Some years later they destroyed a small Scotch settlement nearer the borders of Florida.

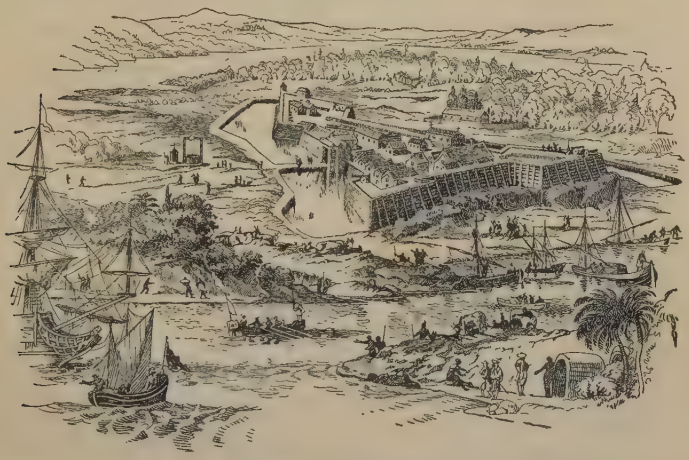


Charleston Harbor

Huguenots in South Carolina. — Charleston and the country around became a refuge for many Huguenots, or French Protestants, who had fled because Louis XIV would no longer allow them to worship as they believed right. The proprietors were glad to obtain such valuable settlers, and offered them full religious liberty. Merchants, goldsmiths, shipwrights, weavers, and men of other trades found employment in Charleston. At least seventy families took up lands along the rivers back of the early settlements. Part of southern Carolina seemed for a while almost a French colony, as there were so many settlers who could not speak English.

The Carolinas divided. — The proprietors did not consider the settlements on the Albemarle and at Charleston as two distinct colonies, but as parts of one. They were, however, too far apart to have any dealings with each other. It

was nearly three hundred miles from one to the other, and by land only Indian trails connected them. Stormy Cape Hatteras projected into the ocean far enough to make the journey in small sailing vessels very dangerous. Each colony liked to manage its own affairs without much interference from the proprietors. Years later, by 1729, the proprietors surrendered their rights in the colony to the



CHARLESTON IN 1673
From an old print

king. It was then divided into North Carolina and South Carolina.

Size of the Second "Great Emigration." — By 1700, 5,000 colonists lived in southern Carolina, and 3,000 in northern Carolina. About 20,000 people had gone from Europe to Pennsylvania and Delaware; the majority of these were Quakers. About 14,000 had settled in New Jersey — the Quakers in the west, Puritans from New England in the north, and English and Scotch in the east, besides some Dutch on the banks of the Hudson. Meanwhile the population of New York had increased to 25,000, the city on

Manhattan Island numbering 5,000. Most of the early emigration to Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and the Carolinas took place in the years from 1680 to 1690, and was due to religious troubles in England and Europe. This is the second great emigration in American history.

QUESTIONS

1. Who came to America after the English Civil War? Where did these emigrants settle? What colony did Englishmen found in the West Indies? What one did they take from the Spaniards?

2. Who were the Dissenters? How were they treated in England?

3. Why did Penn become interested in America? Where did the Quakers at first settle? Who besides Quakers settled in New Jersey?

4. What was Penn's "Holy Experiment"? What lands did Penn secure in America? In what ways did Penn show himself liberal with his colonists?

5. Who formed Penn's first colonists? Where did they make their chief settlements?

6. How did Penn manage to keep the friendship of the Indians?

7. How did Penn govern his colony after returning to England?

8. Who first settled within what is now North Carolina? Who obtained the rights over the Carolinas? What other settlement did the proprietors make?

9. Who besides English Dissenters went to South Carolina? How were the Huguenots treated in South Carolina?

10. Why were the Carolinas separated? Who obtained the rights of the proprietors over the Carolinas?

PENN'S FIRST RESIDENCE IN AMERICA

EXERCISES

1. Make three lists: (1) one of the colonies established by proprietors, (2) of those established by the effort of a trading company, and (3) of those planted by the voluntary effort of the colonists.

2. What was the first great emigration in American history? Was its cause similar to that of the second great emigration? Where did the emigrants settle in each case?

Important Dates:

1670. Settlement at Charleston (Albemarle Point).

1681, 1682. A colony in Pennsylvania. Philadelphia is founded.

CHAPTER X

THE FRENCH RIVALS

The English and French as Rivals. — The rivalry of the English and the French was not keen at first because mountains and forests for hundreds of miles separated nearly all the settlements of the two peoples. To reach the St. Lawrence from the English settlements on the northern Atlantic coast a long and toilsome journey was required. The traveler had to paddle up the Kennebec, the Connecticut, or the Hudson, until he reached their head-waters. Then crossing mountain ridges he would find rivers which flowed into the St. Lawrence. The Hudson route was the best. It was easy to pass over into the Champlain Valley, and to go through Lake George and Lake Champlain into the Richelieu River. The Richelieu flows into the St. Lawrence between Quebec and Montreal.

A Beaver

Beaver skins were the staple in the fur trade

Acadia. — The only place where the English and the French came directly into conflict was along the eastern coast of Maine and in Nova Scotia. The French called the region Acadia. As early as in 1654 an English officer, with soldiers collected chiefly in New England, captured Port Royal and the other French settlements in Acadia. The English gave them back thirteen years later. The reason for such troubles was the lack of any natural border or boundary between these settlements and the English settlements in Maine.

French Trading Companies. — The French, like the English and the Dutch, formed companies to trade and to found colonies. Sometimes the king commanded rich nobles to take shares in order that these companies might have money enough to fit out ships and collect colonists. Unfortunately for the shareholders, most of the companies gained little profit. In this respect they did not differ from many of the English companies. In the St. Lawrence Valley a company with the pleasant name of the Hundred Associates at first had charge of Champlain's colony.

CANADIAN FARMS

The farm houses in eastern Canada are still much the same as they were 200 years ago

The Lot of Canadian Farmers. — In Canada the houses of the settlers were scattered along the rivers, as were the houses of the first Virginians. The land was not given to the farmers directly, but to nobles, or seigniors, as such landlords were called in France. The seigniors divided the land into farms which they rented to the ordinary colonists. The rent was small and was paid either in money or in produce. A penny or so an acre, a few chickens, a dozen eggs, or a sack of wheat were the usual charges.

Like the settlers on the estates of the Dutch patroons, the farmers must grind their grain at the seignior's mill, paying a fourteenth of the grain for the work. This was at first a benefit rather than a burden, for the farmers could not have

built mills for themselves. The farmers were commonly required to work three or four days each year on the seignior's land, at seed time or harvest. The lord occasionally demanded extra days, while his mill was being built, or the church repaired, or the roads improved. One fish in every eleven was taken by him for the privilege of fishing, if the colonists intended to sell the fish.

The lord lived in a house befitting his wealth and power. The large log house with its slab roof — which was built in

FRENCH MISSIONARIES TO THE INDIANS
From an old print

the earlier years — gave way after a time to stately houses of stone. The peasant farmers continued to live in log houses, which they brightened with whitewash. Their fields ran back from the rivers in ribbon-like strips less than eight hundred feet wide, but extending as far as convenient.

Jesuit Missionaries. — One purpose which the founders of the French colonies had was the conversion of the Indians to the Christian faith. Missionaries, accordingly, were prominent in the Canadian settlements. The Jesuits were especially zealous, brave, and self-sacrificing. They pushed ahead of the other settlers, seeking new tribes near which to establish stations. Their lives were often in danger. Some suffered untold tortures, and others were burned at the stake. The

world has no nobler story than the record of their labors and their martyrdom.

The Beginnings of Canadian Towns. — An Indian mission station began with a chapel made of bark, which was soon replaced by a well-built church. The first missionaries, like the traders, lived among the Indians. As the mission prospered, separate homes were built for them near the church. If the governor of Canada deemed the settlement

A View of Detroit in 1705

important, a few soldiers were stationed there. A storehouse for traders was also built, and the whole group of houses surrounded by a palisade to guard against sudden attack by hostile Indians. Usually the wigwams of friendly Indians stood not far away on the edge of a wood. Such was the beginning of many a Canadian town. Father Marquette had founded a station of this sort on the Straits of Mackinac. It was from there that he set out in search of the Mississippi River in 1673. Another station was established in 1701 on the river which joins Lake Erie and Lake Huron, and was named Detroit.

Fur Trade. — As the fur trade was profitable, about a third of the French colonists made no attempt to cultivate

the soil. They pushed deeper and deeper into the woods in search of the best places at which to trade with the Indians. These wood-rangers, or *coureurs de bois* as the French called them, lived with the Indians most of the year, and differed from them little in dress and habits. The king's officers threatened to brand any who went among the Indians without a licensé, because they feared the farms would be abandoned, but many young men were fascinated by life in the woods and ran the risk. The Indians often brought their furs to the larger towns. Annual fairs were held at posts like Mackinac, Detroit, and Montreal. To them came throngs of Indians with heavily loaded canoes and set up their wigwams.

A Coureur de Bois

The French Government and the Colonies. — The French king, Louis XIV, and his principal minister, Colbert, took a deep interest in the success of the colonists in Canada. Colbert wrote to Talon, who was the *intendant*, or manager, of the colony, that the king regarded his "Canadian subjects, from the highest to the lowest, almost as his own children," and urged Talon to "visit all their settlements, one after the other, in order to learn their true condition and to put them in the way of making some profit."

Conflict with the English. — The French were not left long in undisturbed possession of Canada. The first quarrel was about the fur trade. In 1670 a number of English nobles, including the king's brother James, proprietor of New York, formed the Hudson Bay Company, and obtained

from Charles II the right to all the country drained by the rivers which flowed into Hudson Bay. Their agents established posts on the shores of the bay and began to take trade from the French by offering better prices to the Indians. The French resolved to ruin these rivals, and in 1685 a war party started up the Ottawa River for Hudson Bay. But the English could not be driven away, and the French were finally obliged to leave the Hudson Bay Company's territory alone.

The Iroquois become "English." — About the same time the French and the English began to struggle for the control of the Iroquois Indians, the powerful group of tribes which held all northern and western New York. French Jesuit missionaries had already gone among the Iroquois, but did not succeed in winning them as they won the Indians elsewhere. While James was still Duke of York and proprietor of this region, his agents met the Iroquois chiefs at Albany and persuaded them to acknowledge that they were subjects of the king of England. The English then hung up at the Indian towns and strongholds the coat of arms of Duke James, and warned French parties which attempted to enter the region that they were trespassing on English territory.

Revolution in England. — In 1688 a revolution took place in England, which led to war with France in the colonies as well as in Europe. It happened in this way. Charles II died in 1685 and James became king. Soon most members of parliament and many other leading men suspected him of plotting to make England a Roman Catholic country again. At this very time Louis XIV, the cousin of James, took away from the French Protestants their rights of worship. The Huguenots who took refuge in England told of their sufferings. James had been on the throne only three years when his subjects rose in revolt. They offered the throne to his daughter Mary and her husband, William of Orange, the

Dutch ruler, who were Protestants. James took refuge in France with Louis XIV.

England in League against France. — William had already formed a league of European governments against the French king. As he was now king of England the English entered the league. The war spread to America, where it was called King William's War. Shortly after it closed a new struggle broke out, which is called Queen Anne's War. Queen Anne was the successor of King William. This war also caused fighting between the English and the French colonists.[1]

The Horrors of War. — In both King William's and Queen Anne's wars the English and the French made use of Indian allies in attacking one another, encouraging them to rob and murder in heartless fashion. In 1690 a party of French and Indians stole through the open gate of the frontier village of Schenectady at about eleven o'clock on a cold winter night. In a short time they killed more than half of the inhabitants and carried away many as captives. The English soon had their revenge, for with a band of their Indian allies they attacked a small village on the St. Lawrence opposite Montreal, burnt the houses, slaughtered the cattle, and killed or captured as many of the inhabitants as they could find.

Door of House attacked by Indians

In Deerfield Museum

The Attack on Deerfield. — Fourteen years later, in Queen Anne's War, 200 Indians and 50 Canadians made their way in the dead of winter down into the Connecticut River Valley

[1] In Europe these wars are called the War of the League of Augsburg (1688–1697) and the War of the Spanish Succession (1702–1713).

as far as Deerfield, which was then one of the frontier settlements of Massachusetts. At two o'clock in the morning the invaders climbed the palisades, and uttering their war-whoop, broke into all except the most securely guarded houses. The fate of the captives was worse than that of those slain, for any who became exhausted on the dreadful march back to Canada were tomahawked without mercy.

The English were just as cruel. The legislature of Massachusetts offered $200 for every Indian scalp brought in. Soon afterwards an Indian village was surprised and five Indians were scalped and the reward claimed.

Conquest of Acadia. — Before these two wars were over the English gained one important territory. In 1710 an English army, with the aid of colonists, mainly from Boston, conquered Acadia. When peace was made three years later, the French gave up their claim to the country. The English changed its name to Nova Scotia, and called its capital Annapolis instead of Port Royal. For a long time few Englishmen cared to emigrate to Nova Scotia and the colony remained French, though ruled by English officers.

The French in the Mississippi Valley. — While the English were slowly advancing upon the French from the north and the east, that is, from the shores of Hudson Bay and from Nova Scotia, the French strengthened their hold on the Mississippi Valley, especially at its southern end on the Gulf of Mexico.

The man who won fame in this enterprise was Pierre le Moyne, commonly known as Iberville. He had led the French against the English on the shores of Hudson Bay. Now, in the interval between King William's War and Queen Anne's War, with a little fleet of four vessels, having on board 200 colonists and soldiers, he sailed from France in search of the Mississippi. Iberville was a great admirer of La Salle and resolved to push forward the work which La Salle had

begun. In March, 1699, he discovered the Mississippi and rowed up its waters as far as the mouth of the Red River. Tonty, one of La Salle's men, who since his leader's death had remained at Fort St. Louis on the Illinois River, soon learned of the successful attempt of the French to take possession of the region at the mouth of the Mississippi, and sent messages and advice to them.

Portages indicated thus: ▬

MAP OF PORTAGES IN NEW FRANCE AND THE ILLINOIS COUNTRY

The rivers and lakes, with their portages, were the highways for the missionaries, fur traders, and explorers

The English Peril again. — Before the year was out a French party floating down the river suddenly came upon an English sixteen-gun ship a few miles below where New Orleans now stands. This ship had been sent out by one of the proprietors of Carolina to found settlements which should protect the western part of the region which the Carolina proprietors supposed they owned. In the grants to proprietors or companies the English kings had usually said that their lands extended westward to the Pacific Ocean. Never-

theless, the captain of the ship was persuaded not to attempt a settlement, the French telling him that they had a large force established farther up the river.

A year later another party of Frenchmen discovered an English trader at the mouth of the Arkansas River. He also was from Carolina, one of those who with pack horses were making their way over the low southern ranges of the Appalachian barrier and trying to establish a trade in furs with the Indians, even with the tribes beyond the southern Mississippi. The route was long and perilous and the French were in no great danger from this quarter.

Ruins of Old Kaskaskia
From a recent photograph

French Settlements on the Mississippi. — As the new century began the French were busily establishing settlements up and down the great valley. They extended from Cahokia and Kaskaskia in the Illinois country to Mobile on the coast. In 1718 Bienville, Iberville's brother, founded New Orleans on a plain which was fairly dry, though surrounded by marshes. An embankment, or levee, was built around the little settlement to protect it from river floods. Already the settlements of the Illinois country had been placed under the governor of the new colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. New Orleans became the chief market, being much more easily reached than Montreal or Quebec. The men of the Illinois country loaded their furs, flour, and pork on wide, flat barges and floated down to New Orleans. The journey homeward was much more difficult, hundreds of miles against the current. They took back sugar, rice, cotton, tobacco, and articles from France.

By the close of the first two or three decades of the eighteenth century it looked as if the French had outstripped the English in the discovery and occupation of the Mississippi Valley, the broadest and richest region within what is now the United States. The question was, could they hold it?

New Orleans in 1718

QUESTIONS

1. Why was it so long after the early settlement of America before the rivalry of the French and English became keen? Where did the two peoples first come into conflict? Why?

2. How did the French found colonies in America?

3. What rights had French seigniors over the colonists on their lands?

4. What part did the Jesuits and traders have in the spread of French settlements?

5. Why did France have difficulty in obtaining farmers to cultivate the soil of Canada? How did the wood-rangers live? In what two ways did the French people carry on the fur trade with the Indians?

6. What French minister was much interested in the French colonies? What did he instruct the manager or *intendant* of the colonies to do?

7. Why did the English form the Hudson Bay Company? What was the outcome of the struggle between the French in Canada and the Hudson Bay Company?

8. Why did both the French and the English try to win the friendship of the Iroquois? Which succeeded?

9. What change took place in England in 1688?

10. What part had the Indians in the border wars between the French and the English?

11. What colony did the English take from the French by conquest in the war ending in 1713? What name did the English give the conquered colony?

French Fur Trader

12. What new colony had the French just founded, making up for the loss of Acadia? Who had attempted before Iberville to found a colony on the lower Mississippi? What signs were there that the French settlements on the Mississippi were not entirely safe from attack?

13. How extensive were the French settlements in the West? How did the Illinois settlers carry on trade with those at New Orleans? Had the English any foothold in the Mississippi Valley?

EXERCISES

1. By a review of the earlier chapters learn about land owners who had rights somewhat similar to those of the seigniors in Canada.

2. By use of the map, page 107, find the various waterways by which the French could travel from Canada to their settlements in the Mississippi Valley.

Important Dates:

1688. The English drive James II from the throne.
1701. The French begin a settlement at Detroit within what is now the United States.
1718. The founding of New Orleans by the French.

CHAPTER XI

THE MAKING OF NEW FRONTIERS

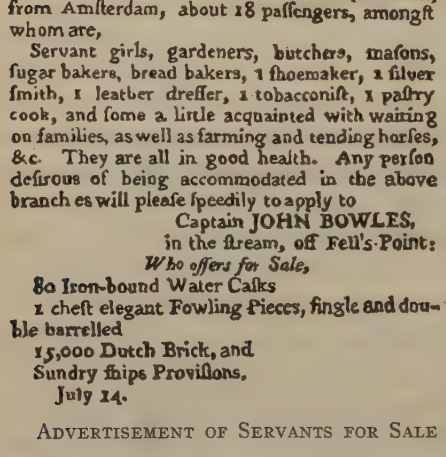
The Population of the Colonies. — In the first half of the eighteenth century the number of persons in the colonies increased steadily and rapidly. By 1750 there were nearly a million and a half, about five times as many as in 1700. In some parts of the country, in New England for example, the increase was due mainly to the growth of families which had arrived in the earlier years of the settlements. Many contained seven or eight children, who left the old home to help found families of their own. In other parts of the country the native families increased rapidly, and hundreds of emigrants from England, Scotland, Ireland, and Europe, or from the older colonies, arrived to swell the numbers.

Beginnings of the Westward Movement. — The first settlements had been made on the coast or on the banks of some bay or river, at a place which sea-going ships might reach. As the population increased, the better lands were soon taken up, and newcomers as well as enterprising young men and women of the older settlements left the coast, moved farther up the rivers, or climbed the foothills of the great Appalachian barrier. New frontiers were formed. In this way began the westward movement, which was not to stop until it reached the shores of the Pacific Ocean.

German and Swiss Emigrants. — Events in England and Europe continued to drive many persons to America. Thousands emigrated from Germany and Switzerland. Many of them were Mennonites, who, hearing that the Quakers

were prospering in Penn's colony, desired to enjoy the same liberties. The unwillingness of the Swiss Mennonites to bear arms made the magistrates of the Swiss cities ready to let them go. Indeed they forced some of them to leave.

The "Poor Palatines." — The inhabitants of a German district along the Rhine called the Palatinate had several reasons for desiring to find a peaceful refuge. For a hundred years the Rhine country had been ravaged by war. French and German armies crossed and recrossed this region, plundering and burning. Thousands went to England in Queen Anne's time. In 1710 about 3,000 were shipped to New York, where the governor thought they could be employed in making tar from pine trees. When this experiment failed, most of them settled in the Mohawk Valley. Some emigrated later to Pennsylvania, moving down the Susquehanna from New York. A band of 500 Palatines, with a party of Swiss, went to North Carolina, where they named their principal settlement New Berne from the Swiss city of Berne.



Redemptioners.

THERE ſtill remain on board the ſhip Aurora, from Amſterdam, about 18 paſſengers, amongſt whom are,

Servant girls, gardeners, butchers, maſons, ſugar bakers, bread bakers, 1 ſhoemaker, 1 ſilver ſmith, 1 leather dreſſer, 1 tobacconiſt, 1 paſtry cook, and ſome a little acquainted with waiting on families, as well as farming and tending horſes, &c. They are all in good health. Any perſon deſirous of being accommodated in the above branches will pleaſe ſpeedily to apply to

Captain JOHN BOWLES,
in the ſtream, off Fell's-Point:
Who offers for Sale,
80 Iron-bound Water Caſks
1 cheſt elegant Fowling Pieces, ſingle and double barrelled
15,000 Dutch Brick, and
Sundry ſhips Proviſions.
July 14.

ADVERTISEMENT OF SERVANTS FOR SALE

Other German Emigrants. — Many reasons besides war and religion influenced Germans to seek a home in America. Like most Europeans they were divided into nobles, citizens or inhabitants of the towns, and peasants or farmers. In Europe a citizen was not expected to become a peasant,

even if he preferred farming to a trade. A peasant could not become a citizen. Indeed, he was generally obliged to remain on the little farm on which he was brought up. He must pay a part of his products to the noble who was lord of the community, and his children must serve for a time as domestic servants in the noble's family. These Germans had reason to be discontented and to emigrate to a country where they could obtain land, and by industry and thrift could become equal to any of their neighbors.

"Newlanders." — When the shipowners found that many persons were eager to go to America, they thought they could increase their profits by sending men about to tell tales of the riches each person could easily gain there. These men had generally spent a short time in the colonies, so that their tales sounded true. They praised the new lands so much that they were called "Newlanders." They were also called "soul stealers," because they frequently cheated the poor emigrants.

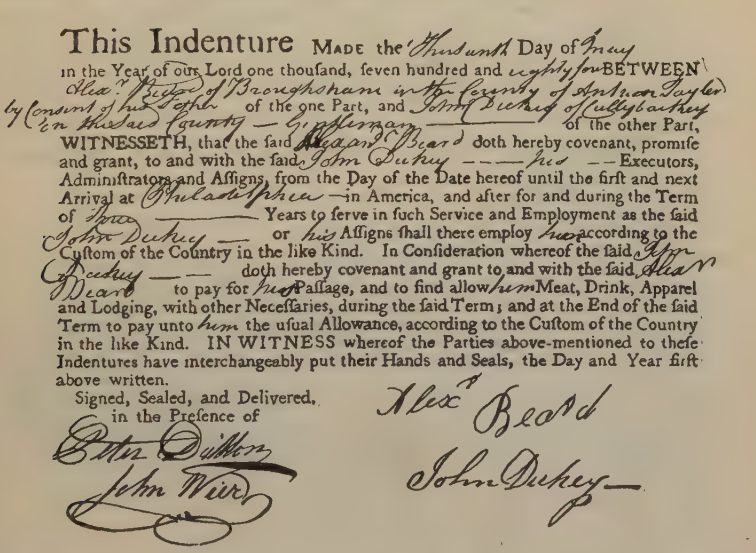
The Pennsylvania Germans. — Most of the Germans went to Pennsylvania. Sometimes the emigrants who arrived at Philadelphia in a single year numbered 6,000, and the smallest number was 267. By the opening of the Revolutionary War over 100,000 Germans lived in Pennsylvania and made up more than a third of the population. Some of the frontier settlements were composed almost wholly of these newcomers, differing in language and customs from those of the older settlements. From Pennsylvania many Germans moved southward along the Appalachian ridges until they reached the fertile lands of the beautiful Shenandoah Valley in Virginia.

Scotch-Irish. — Events in Great Britain also caused emigration to America. In 1715, and again in 1745, the heirs of King James II tried to regain the throne, but were defeated. The Scotch had fought loyally for these princes,

called the "Old Pretender" and the "Young Pretender," and many were obliged to seek refuge in America. After 1745 the English government attempted to break up the Scottish clans, and this also caused the Scotch to emigrate. During the same period many Scotch-Irish went to America, because the Irish woolen industry was ruined by English laws which prevented the export of Irish woolen goods. These persons were called Scotch-Irish because they had emigrated originally from Scotland to the north of Ireland. The Scotch-Irish usually arrived either at Philadelphia, Newcastle, or Charleston. Like the Germans, they settled on the frontier beyond the older settlements. Many settled in central Pennsylvania and moved southward up the Shenandoah Valley and even into North Carolina. Others, who entered at Charleston, went westward more slowly because of the wide belt of sandy pine barrens in the center of the southern states. Some of them in time met the frontier settlers from the north in the valleys of the Catawba and the Yadkin. It was not long before the foremost emigrants were pushing westward into the valleys sloping into Tennessee. Among those who came from Pennsylvania was the father of Daniel Boone.

WHERE THE GERMAN AND SCOTCH-IRISH EMIGRANTS SETTLED

Scotch-Irish people formed fully a third of the settlers of Pennsylvania, Delaware, and North Carolina, and a half of South Carolina. German and Scotch-Irish emigrants soon filled the back country with little settlements. Their eyes were ever turned toward newer lands beyond the ridges which hemmed them in. They were the first to bear the brunt of Indian attacks and were ready to struggle with the Indian for the possession of his hunting grounds.



This Indenture Made the Thirtieth Day of May in the Year of our Lord one thousand, seven hundred and eighty four BETWEEN Alex^r Beard of Broughshane in the County of Antrim Taylor by Consent of his Father of the one Part, and John Dickey of Ballybarkey in the said County — Gentleman — of the other Part, WITNESSETH, that the said Alexander Beard doth hereby covenant, promise and grant, to and with the said John Dickey — his — Executors, Administrators and Assigns, from the Day of the Date hereof until the first and next Arrival at Philadelphia — in America, and after for and during the Term of Four — Years to serve in such Service and Employment as the said John Dickey — or his Assigns shall there employ him according to the Custom of the Country in the like Kind. In Consideration whereof the said John Dickey — doth hereby covenant and grant to and with the said Alex^r Beard to pay for his Passage, and to find allow him Meat, Drink, Apparel and Lodging, with other Necessaries, during the said Term; and at the End of the said Term to pay unto him the usual Allowance, according to the Custom of the Country in the like Kind. IN WITNESS whereof the Parties above-mentioned to these Indentures have interchangeably put their Hands and Seals, the Day and Year first above written.

Signed, Sealed, and Delivered, in the Presence of

Peter Dillon
John Weir

Alex^r Beard
John Dickey

A Redemptioner's Indenture

Redemptioners.—Many of those who arrived in the colonies would not have been able to come had not some one lent them the money. Often they agreed to work a certain number of years in return for it. In this case they were called "indentured servants," as at Jamestown, or quite as often "redemptioners," because they expected to redeem or free themselves by work. Many were cheated in making such bargains with the "soul stealers," who turned them over to

ship captains. When the vessel reached the colonies, the captains sold them to a contractor, who took them to regions in want of laborers, and sold them to the farmers. Fortunately the farmer-masters were generally kind, and taught the newcomer the things that he would need to know when he should become a farmer on his own account.

When the Years of Service were over. — At the end of the years of service the indentured servant or redemptioner became free. He received a gift from his former master — clothing, wheat for seed, and a pig or calf for his future farm. The colony usually gave him a tract of land. The women received clothing. In this way by a few years of labor a man or woman, and even a boy or girl, became a free and prosperous colonist in the new country.

"Naturalization." — One difficulty seemed to hinder persons who were not subjects of the king of England from settling in the colonies. Governments at that time did not acknowledge that their subjects could become citizens of another country. Once a German, or once a Frenchman, always a German or a Frenchman. But governments, like men and women, sometimes do not keep their own rules. Frederick the Great of Prussia often invited the subjects of other kings to become his subjects. The English parliament did the same, and passed acts which are now called Naturalization Laws. These laws said that foreigners who lived in the colonies for seven years should have the same rights as the native-born subjects of the English king. They could hold any office except those which the government itself filled. The assemblies of the colonies sometimes made the time of residence shorter. Parliament also did that, for it voted to naturalize the United Brethren or Moravians before they left Europe.

The English and the Spaniards. — The Spaniards in Florida watched jealously the increase of the settlements in the

Carolinas. They persuaded their Indian allies to attack the English. The English in turn attacked the Spaniards or sent their own Indian allies against them.

It is no wonder that the inhabitants of South Carolina were glad when they heard that a new colony was to be established between their settlements and Florida. In 1732 James Oglethorpe and his friends in England obtained the right to found a colony south of the Savannah River. They

King's Bench Prison, London, for Poor Debtors in the Eighteenth Century

gave the name Georgia to the territory in honor of George II, who was then king of England.

Oglethorpe's Plan to aid the Poor Debtors. — Oglethorpe was interested in any plan to help the poor. In those days the English law allowed a creditor to send to jail any one who owed him and could not pay the debt. The jails were horrible places, filthy, and overrun with vermin, where prisoners held for all sorts of crimes were herded together. The jailer was often cruel and cheated his prisoners, if he did not torture them. There was little chance that a poor

debtor once sent to such a place would live to get out. Oglethorpe thought it better to send such persons to America where they might start anew. He chose as the motto of the colony, "Not for self, but for others." He expected no gain for himself; indeed, he used his own money to further the enterprise.

Founding of Georgia. — Oglethorpe went to Georgia in 1733. He was accompanied by 35 poor families, selected out of a large number willing to go. They went up the

SETTLEMENTS IN GEORGIA

This map shows the size of the original grant of Georgia in 1732

Savannah River about ten miles and began a town which they called Savannah, using the Indian name of the river. Like William Penn and Roger Williams, Oglethorpe first made peace with the Indians, buying the land from them. Savannah was laid out with broad streets and large parks. Fifty acres of land were given to each family. Oglethorpe received aid from the English government and from wealthy friends in buying arms, farm tools, seed, and supplies. The people of South Carolina sent 100 head of cattle, a drove of hogs, a flock of sheep, and 20 barrels of rice. Several went to Savannah with their servants to aid the new colony in building houses. Everything seemed hopeful.

The Troubles of Georgia. — Poor men who could not make a living in England were not well fitted for the hardships of a new country. Others came, but progress was slow. The colonists complained because they were not allowed at first to hold slaves, like the South Carolinians. They were hampered also by the size of the farms, which were too small to be treated as plantations. In 1734 some industrious Germans entered the colony, and two years later a band of Scotch Highlanders. Unfortunately the colony was soon troubled by Spanish attacks, especially after England declared war on Spain for cruelly treating English sailors caught smuggling in the West Indies. In 1743 Oglethorpe returned to England discouraged. Nine years later he and his friends gave up their rights in the colony, which then came directly under control of the king. A small trading station at Augusta, far inland on the Savannah River, gave the Georgians a share in the fur trade with the Indians. Georgia remained during the colonial period the smallest and weakest of the colonies.

CONTEMPORARY PORTRAIT SHOWING COSTUME OF GERMAN MAN AND WOMAN

QUESTIONS

1. How many people were there in the English colonies by 1750? What was the chief way in which New England increased in population after the first settlement? What large bodies of emigrants swelled the numbers in the other colonies?

2. Why did men leave the older settlements for the frontier? What name is given in American history to the constant movement of settlers toward the frontier?

3. Why did the Germans, the Scotch, and the Scotch-Irish come to America

in the eighteenth century? What part had the Newlanders in securing emigrants for America?

4. Where did the Germans settle? The Scotch-Irish?

5. Who were the defenders of the frontier from Indian attacks?

6. How could poor boys and girls get to America? What became of the indentured servants when their time was up?

7. How did foreigners become naturalized citizens of the English colonies?

8. What was Oglethorpe's plan for aiding English debtors? Why did the people of South Carolina welcome neighbors and help them?

9. Why did Georgia grow slowly? Who took Oglethorpe's place as head of the colony?

EXERCISES

1. Can people without money enough to pay for their passage come to America now? (Any recent immigrant can answer.)

2. How can a foreigner become a naturalized citizen today?

REVIEW

Founding of the English Colonies

1607. The Virginia Company founds a colony at Jamestown.
1620. The Pilgrims settle at Plymouth.
1630. The Massachusetts Bay Company founds a colony at Boston and at other places on Massachusetts Bay.
1634. Baltimore starts a settlement at St. Mary's.
1636. Emigrants from Massachusetts begin the towns of Connecticut.
1636. Roger Williams and other exiles from Massachusetts found settlements in Rhode Island.
1638. Puritans from England found a colony at New Haven.
1665. The proprietors of New Jersey begin the active settlement of a new colony. Earlier settlers had established themselves at various places.
1670. The proprietors of the Carolinas found Charleston, though not the first settlement in the Carolinas.
1681. Penn sends a body of Quakers to Pennsylvania. Philadelphia founded in 1682.
1733. Oglethorpe begins a settlement at Savannah, Georgia.

CHAPTER XII

HOW THE COLONISTS LIVED

Changes in Manner of Living. — As the colonists increased in number the principal settlements changed in appearance. Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and a few other places began to resemble English cities. The well-to-do built houses much like those which were being built by the Lon-

HOME OF A PROSPEROUS COLONIST IN THE SOUTH

don merchants of the time. Some of them are still standing.[1] The cities, however, were small, Philadelphia, the largest, having only 20,000 inhabitants.

On the new frontier the settlers lived like the first inhabitants of Plymouth or Jamestown. They hunted, fished,

[1] Houses built in that style of architecture are called colonial. In England they are called Georgian, because built in the time of King George I or George II. The English Georgian houses were commonly of brick, while the colonial houses were often of wood.

and raised a few articles of food. Some of them were busied with the fur trade, which was no longer carried on in the older settlements.

Differences between the Colonies. — The colonies also differed from one another, because of differences in climate or in the nature of the soil. In South Carolina rice, and later indigo and cotton, could be raised. In Virginia the main crop was tobacco. Both rice and tobacco were usually

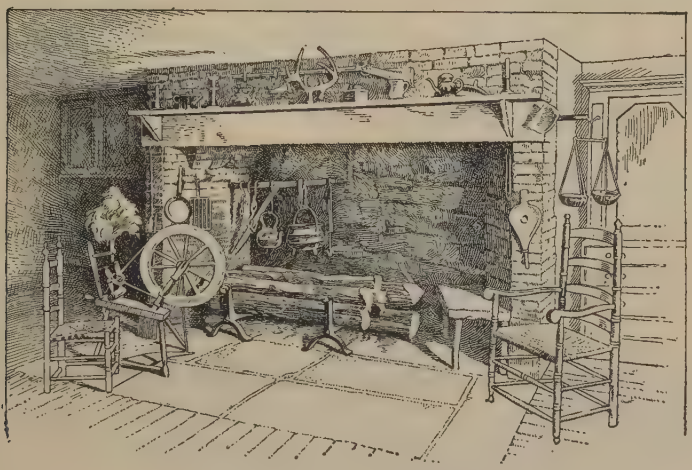
Colonial or Georgian House

cultivated on large plantations. Farther north the soil and climate were not suited to such crops. The land was divided into small farms, and corn, wheat, oats, and beans were raised. The farmers lived in villages. In the South the people were not usually grouped in villages, except that the cabins of servants or slaves stood not far from the planter's house.

What the Colonists did not have. — Many things now considered necessary, such as matches, kerosene, gas, electricity, and telephones, the colonists did not have. Neither did the Europeans of that time have them, for they had not

been invented. The ordinary settlers were without many things then common in Europe, but the planters and merchants often lived like well-to-do Europeans.

Open fire-places served for both heating and cooking. Fires were carefully banked with ashes to keep them from going out, for if they went out the settler would be obliged to seek live coals at the house of a neighbor. Churches were not heated. People sometimes carried foot-warmers



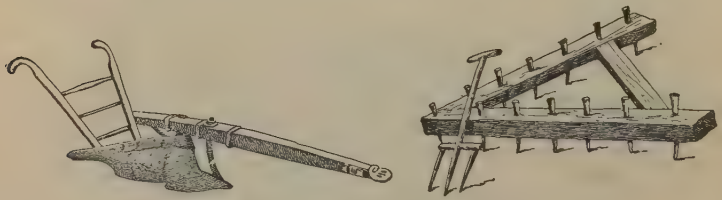
A Colonial Kitchen Fire-Place

to church and kept on their hats, great-coats, and mittens during the service.

The better houses were lighted by candles; in the others pine-knot torches were used. Frequently the light from the fire-place was enough. Rich people had lamps in which sperm oil was burned. These were lighted only on important occasions.

Farming in the Colonies. — The colonists were mostly farmers or planters. Methods of farming used nowadays were unheard of even in Europe. The English or European

farmer managed his land as his forefathers had for a thousand years. He knew that land, like everything else, wore out. He did not understand of what elements soils are composed, and what must be put into them each year in order to obtain large crops. He tried to keep the land in good condition by allowing it to lie uncultivated or fallow every third year, believing that it would rest and regain its strength. He tried what is called rotation of crops, that is, planting different crops, as the years came around, on the same piece of land. But he did not understand, as does the farmer of today, what crops serve this purpose best.



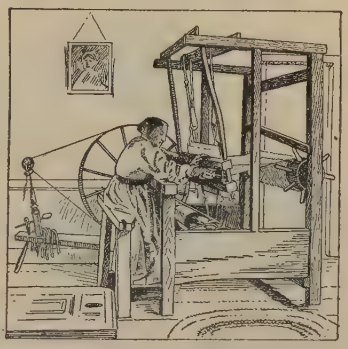
Wooden Plow, Harrow, and Fork

Settlers in America had one advantage — there was plenty of land. After a field became worn out they could plow up another, or move to a region where the soil was rich. The crops raised in the North did not exhaust the soil quickly, but planters in the South discovered that new fields must often be found for tobacco.

Farming tools were simple and rude. Machinery had not been invented. The plow, mostly of wood, scratched a shallow furrow. A scythe or even a sickle was used to harvest grain. Threshing was done by a hand-flail or by the treading of horses or oxen on a hard floor. After the grain was beaten from the stalk, it was thrown into the air against the wind to blow out the chaff, and was finally passed through sieves.

Plantations. — Farming on the great plantations of the South was very different. Some plantations contained many

thousand acres. The work of plowing, planting, hoeing, and gathering tobacco was done at first by indentured servants. In the eighteenth century it was done mostly by slaves. As slaves were ignorant, an overseer for every twenty negroes was necessary. The profits were often large. A few planters are said to have made the great sum of £20,000 to £80,000 a year. But the method was ruinous, because no attempt was made to put back into the soil what the tobacco plants were steadily taking out. After a time the fields were "dead." Rice growing on the plantations of South Carolina was not so profitable, because expenses were greater. Low, wet fields were needed, and the laborer must often stand in water or mud. The sun was hot, and malaria was a common disease. If slaves sickened and died, planters lost heavily. In the Piedmont region of the South the farms were often small, and the crops like those raised in the North.

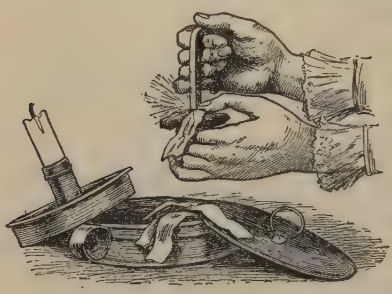


Spinning Wheel and Colonial Loom

Carrying Tobacco to the Wharf in Virginia

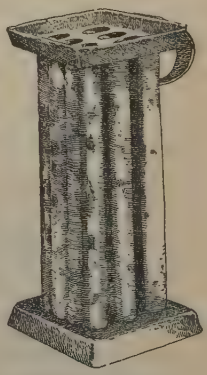
Colonial Industries. — Much was done on farms and plantations besides raising crops. Clothing, utensils, and house-

hold supplies must be prepared. The farmer's house was a workshop. Roads were few and poor. Rivers and the ocean were the natural highways. Little trade went on between the settlements. This was not the only reason for household industries. In England and Europe many trades were still carried on in homes or in shops connected with them. There were no factories, for machinery and power to run it had not been invented. The English weaver got his thread or yarn from merchants, wove cloth at home, and sold it to the merchant. This was called the "domestic system." In the colonies the women spun the yarn, wove the cloth, and cut and finished the clothing for their families. Spinning wheels were found in every home. In Massachusetts in 1656 every family was required by law to teach its girls to spin. Each woman was expected to spin three pounds of yarn, cotton or wool, every week for thirty weeks of the year. If she failed she might be fined.



TINDER BOX, FLINT, AND STEEL

Men made many things with ax and jack-knife. Plows and harrows were mostly of wood. Boys whittled butter paddles for the dairy, or box traps and "figure-four" traps for catching animals.



MOULD FOR MAKING CANDLES

Many things which the planter needed were made by slaves, but other things he obtained in exchange for his rice or tobacco. The ships which came from England for these brought costly clothing, crockery, pictures, and furniture. The northern settler had

little to send to England in exchange for such things except lumber and ship timber. At first he had furs to sell. To obtain what he wanted he must become a trader or manufacture things himself.

England and Colonial Industries. — After a time men as well as women engaged in weaving cloth. They began to make goods of finer quality. These were sold not only in settlements near by, but also in the South and in the West Indies. The English merchants became alarmed, fearing that they would be unable to sell their goods to the colonists. A governor of New York wrote to the officials in England that he had "seen serge made upon Long Island that any man may wear." The English parliament, taking the side of the English cloth-makers and merchants, passed a "Woolen Act," which forbade woolen goods to be sent from one colony to another or even from one town to another.

Anno quinto

Georgii II. Regis.

An Act to prevent the Exportation of Hats out of any of His Majesty's Colonies or Plantations in *America*, and to restrain the Number of Apprentices taken by the Hat-makers in the said Colonies or Plantations, and for the better encouraging the making Hats in *Great Britain*.

WHEREAS the Art and Mystery of making Hats in Great Britain hath arrived to great Perfection, and considerable Quantities of Hats manufactured in this Kingdom have heretofore been exported to His Majesty's Plantations or Colonies in America, who have been wholly supplied with Hats from Great Britain; and whereas great Quantities of Hats have of late Years been made, and the said Manufacture is daily increasing in the British Plantations in America, and is from thence exported to Foreign Markets, which were heretofore supplied from Great Britain, and the Hat-makers in the said Plantations take many Apprentices for very small Terms, to the Discouragement of the said Trade, and debasing the said Manufacture; Wherefore for preventing

5 C

PART OF THE ACT FORBIDDING SENDING HATS AWAY

Reduced facsimile

The attempts of the northern colonies to make beaver hats were treated in the same way. The colonists had an advantage over the English hatters, because beaver fur came from the colonies. Hats made in New England and New York were shipped as far as Spain. English hatters, like the cloth-makers, appealed to parliament, which replied by ordering that no hats should be sent by the colonists from one place to another and offered for sale under penalty of a fine of £500.

The Shoe and Leather Trade. — The shoe and leather trade fared better. The Massachusetts government made laws to prevent the waste of hides. Shoe-makers who came from England taught the farmers to make shoes. The farmer spent part of the long winter days in making shoes for his family, but other men gave all their time to making shoes for sale. Soon after Lynn was settled it had many shoe-makers, working in their homes or in small shops. Shoes made in Massachusetts were sold in the other colonies. The English government did not interfere with this trade.

Anno vicesimo tertio

Georgii II. Regis.

An Act to encourage the Importation of Pig and Bar Iron from His Majesty's Colonies in *America;* and to prevent the Erection of any Mill or other Engine for Slitting or Rolling of Iron; or any Plateing Forge to work with a Tilt Hammer; or any Furnace for making Steel in any of the said Colonies.

WHereas the Importation of Bar Iron from His Majesty's Colonies in America, into the Port of London, and the Importation of Pig Iron from the said Colonies, into any Port of Great Britain, and the Manufacture of such Bar and Pig Iron in Great Britain, will be a great Advantage not only to the said Colonies, but also to this Kingdom, by furnishing the Manufacturers of Iron with a Supply of that useful and necessary Commodity, and by Means whereof large Sums of Money, now annually paid for Iron to Foreigners, will be saved to this Kingdom, and a greater Quantity of the Woollen, and other Manufactures of Great

6 P

PART OF THE ACT FORBIDDING BUILDING IRON MILLS IN THE COLONIES

Reduced facsimile

The Iron Industry. — Another trade which the English parliament was willing to permit to some extent was the making of iron. The first furnaces used ore known as "bog iron," found in swampy regions. Later better ore was found in the hills of Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. English iron manufacturers were glad to buy pig iron from the colonial furnaces, for otherwise they must buy it from Swedes and Russians. They did not know what rich ores existed in England. Moreover, they did not understand how to use coal in melting the ores, and their supply of charcoal was running low. They did not, however, wish the colonists to work up the pig iron into plates or tools of iron or steel which could be sold and thus lessen the sale of their own products. Parliament thought as they did and

forbade the colonists to set up any iron or steel mills for such purposes.

Many farmers, especially in New England, made nails and tacks and simple tools to sell to their neighbors. A hammer, an anvil, and a small furnace in the chimney-corner of the living-room formed the outfit necessary for this, which was another of the home or domestic industries of colonial times.

Bounties for Naval Stores. — While the English government tried to keep the colonists from manufacturing things already made in England, it was ready to pay rewards or bounties on every ton of "naval stores," or material for use in building ships. An official was ordered to mark trees suitable for use in the navy. The bounty on turpentine was profitable to the Carolinas, which sent 60,000 barrels to England every year. Virginia and Maryland sent over annually a thousand tons of hemp. But New England could not raise hemp and could get better prices for her lumber in the West Indies than in England.

The Old Colonial System. — Why did the English government attempt to say to the colonists what they should make and what they should not make? Modern governments

Some Hats of Colonial Times

permit the people of their colonies to manufacture what they please. The reason lay in the idea that the English government and other governments in the eighteenth century had of the purpose and use of colonies. English officials looked upon a colony as a man looks upon his farm or garden. He intends that its different parts shall furnish him the various things he needs. Cloth, hats, and steel produced in the colonies were not needed in England, while tobacco, rice, and

naval stores were. The southern colonies were fortunate in offering what the English of the mother country were willing to take. The English government told the New Englanders and the other northern colonists that if they would not furnish naval stores they at least should not do what the Englishmen at home wanted to do. This meant that Englishmen in the colonies did not have the same rights as Englishmen in England. In other words, the colonies were managed for the interests of English merchants and shipowners rather than for the welfare of the colonists.

The northern colonists disturbed the English merchants and shipowners because they wished to become traders. The northern coast was full of good harbors. Lumber was cheap. Men living near the ocean are always inclined to become seamen. The profits of the colonial shipowners were seriously interfered with by the Navigation Acts which were first intended to injure the Dutch traders. A long list of articles, including sugar and tobacco, two of the most important articles of colonial trade, should, the Act said, be taken nowhere except to England. The colonial traders wished to take these articles not only to England, but also to Europe, where they could get higher prices. If Virginia tobacco was landed in England, all sorts of profits and dues were added to the cost, and the European was obliged to pay the English merchant more than he had to pay the colonial merchant. The English officials saw no wrong in this, for if the mother country could gain nothing from the colonies, why should she have colonies? Certainly not for the benefit of the colonists. But the colonists did not agree with the English officials. Many of the ship-masters paid no attention to the Navigation Laws, taking both sugar and tobacco to Europe. If they were arrested by officers sent to the colonies for that purpose, colonial juries usually decided that they were not guilty.

Trade with the West Indies. — The northern colonies found trade with the West Indies very profitable. Planters in Barbados, Jamaica, and other English islands, gained such large profits from raising sugar that they did not take time to raise food or cut the timber they needed. They preferred to buy such things of the Atlantic coast settlers. Hundreds of ships went from New England, New York, and the Delaware River, loaded with horses, oxen, sheep, hogs, fish, corn, peas, beans, oats, and flour. Planters sometimes bought house-frames all ready to set up, and staves and hoops for sugar barrels. The northern ship-masters took in return sugar, molasses, and usually some money. The money they found useful in buying in England articles which were not made in America.

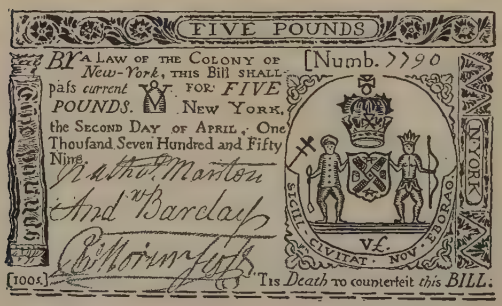
Colonial Smuggling. — Colonial traders carried on a similar trade with the French and Spanish West Indies. They found this more profitable, for the English islands taxed their products higher than the French islands, and so the colonial traders had to pay more for the sugar and molasses, and did not bring back so much money. Moreover, the English islands could not furnish them with half the molasses they wanted. They had no right to trade with foreign islands, for foreign governments, like the English government, insisted that trade with their colonies was for their merchants alone. French and Spanish planters, however, were usually ready to buy of the English colonists, because French and Spanish merchants could not sell food so cheaply. The consequence was that many colonial ship-masters became smugglers. When the English planters found that the colonists were buying so much sugar and molasses from the French, they complained to the home government, which attempted in 1733 to stop the trade by placing high taxes on such products brought into the northern colonies. Nevertheless, the smuggling went on, and the

colonists paid little attention to the "Sugar Act," as the law was called.

Fisheries. — Many sailors, especially in New England, were engaged in fishing for cod and mackerel off the coast or on the Banks of Newfoundland. Sailors learned to capture the sperm whale and to obtain oil from the blubber. Towns like Marblehead, Nantucket, and New Bedford were famous for their success in whaling.

Money. — Money is needed to carry on business. Those who have something to exchange cannot readily find the person who wants it and who has something they are willing to receive. For this reason the first Plymouth colonists used polished shells and the Virginians used tobacco as money. English coins did not remain long in the colonies, chiefly because the colonists always bought more of the English merchants than they sold to them and were obliged to pay the difference in coin. Spanish coins were the most common. After 1728 the new Spanish "dollar," with its halves and quarters, and Portuguese coins were widely used.

Paper Money. — During the wars with the French, Massachusetts, having no money in its treasury to pay the soldiers, ordered paper money, or promises to pay, to be given them. Massachusetts frequently chose this easy way of paying its debts. The same thing was done by most of the other colonies. The difficulty was that the promises to pay were not kept, and that it took at various times from seven to twenty-


FIVE POUNDS
BY A LAW OF THE COLONY OF New-York, THIS BILL SHALL pass current FOR FIVE POUNDS. NEW YORK, the SECOND DAY OF APRIL, One Thousand Seven Hundred and Fifty Nine.
[Numb. 7790
Tis Death to counterfeit this BILL.
SIC SEMPER TYRANNIS
SIGILL. CIVITAT. NOV EBORAC.
VL

NEW YORK COLONIAL PAPER MONEY

six dollars in paper to obtain one dollar in coin. The English government attempted to stop the issue of such money, but without much success.

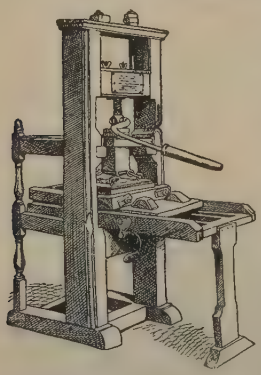
Colonial Schools. — One consequence of the lack of money was inability to provide good schools. In several colonies the legislatures had voted that schools should be established by all towns containing a certain number of families. Massachusetts threatened to fine towns which did not obey the law. Twice the fines were doubled, but it was easier to pay them than to support teachers. In Pennsylvania parents who did not teach their children to read and write were threatened with a fine of £5. The growth of schools in the South was still slower, because the inhabitants were more scattered. In Virginia a few private schools were founded with money left by prosperous planters. Sons of planters were sent to England for their education or were taught by private teachers. Public schools in the colonies were only for boys. Girls sometimes learned to read and write in private schools.

College of William and Mary
After a drawing made about 1740

Colleges. — Harvard remained the only college until just at the close of the seventeenth century, when a college was founded in Virginia, and named William and Mary for the monarchs then reigning in England. A few years later, in

1701, a college was established in Connecticut and named after Elihu Yale, a wealthy merchant who gave it a large sum. Soon other colleges were founded—at Princeton in New Jersey, at Providence in Rhode Island, and at Hanover in New Hampshire. Benjamin Franklin was one of the founders of an "Academy" at Philadelphia, which later became the University of Pennsylvania. It differed from the other colleges in making the study of the English language as important as the study of Latin and Greek.

The main purpose of the colleges was to train clergymen. For this reason older students in Yale were required to "read some part of the Old Testament out of Hebrew into Greek in the morning and to turn some part of the New Testament out of English or Latin into Greek at the time of the evening recitation." Dartmouth college was originally intended to train Indians to teach Christianity to their tribes. In Franklin's "Academy" other needs of the community were equally remembered. Even in Philadelphia, a young man wishing to study law or medicine had to do so in the office of a lawyer or a doctor, and not at a college.



FRANKLIN'S PRINTING PRESS

In the custody of the Smithsonian Institution

Printing. — Most of the books in the colonies were brought from England and Europe, but a few books and pamphlets were printed in America. A printing press was set up in Massachusetts as early as 1638. Newspapers were rare. This is not surprising, because there were none in England until 1622. The Boston *News Letter*, begun in 1704, was the first in America. One was started in New York in 1725, and another, by Franklin, in Philadelphia, eight

years later. All these papers looked like small leaflets and were published once a week.

Almanacs were very popular. One which Franklin published was called *Poor Richard's Almanac*. It contained, besides the calendar and list of eclipses, many bits of history, proverbs, and practical advice. Books and newspapers were costly, but everybody could have *Poor Richard's Almanac*. Franklin's rhymes and jokes and quaint sayings taught his readers many things, above all to be frugal and industrious. One of his sayings was, "Sloth like Rust consumes faster than Labor wears;" another, everywhere familiar, "Early to bed, and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise."

Poor Richard, 1733.

AN

Almanack

For the Year of Chriſt

1733,

Being the Firſt after LEAP YEAR:

And makes ſince the Creation	Years
By the Account of the Eaſtern *Greeks*	7241
By the Latin Church, when ☉ ent. ♈	5932
By the Computation of *W. W*	5742
By the *Roman* Chronology	5682
By the *Jewiſh* Rabbies	5494

Wherein is contained

The Lunations, Eclipſes, Judgment of the Weather, Spring Tides, Planets Motions & mutual Aſpects, Sun and Moon's Riſing and Setting, Length of Days, Time of High Water, Fairs, Courts, and obſervable Days

Fitted to the Latitude of Forty Degrees, and a Meridian of Five Hours Weſt from *London*, but may without ſenſible Error, ſerve all the adjacent Places, even from *Newfoundland* to *South-Carolina*.

By *RICHARD SAUNDERS*, Philom.

PHILADELPHIA:
Printed and ſold by *B. FRANKLIN*, at the New Printing Office near the Market.

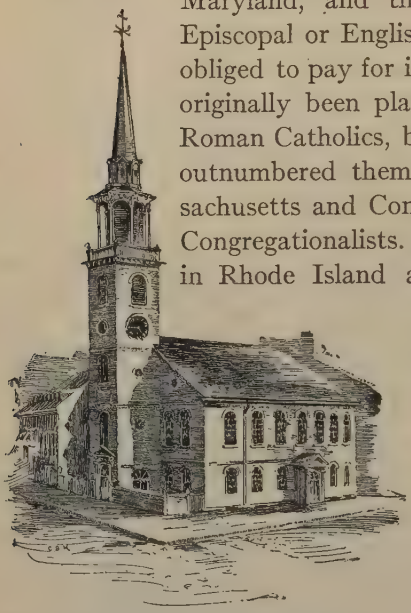
The Third Impreſſion.

REDUCED FACSIMILE OF THE TITLE-PAGE OF POOR RICHARD'S ALMANAC

Language in the Colonies. — Though many of the colonists came from the continent of Europe, English was the language spoken almost everywhere. It soon began to differ somewhat from the English spoken in England, because the colonists invented names for things in America which they had not seen in England or the names of which they had forgotten. For example, they called birds after their colors, like "black-

bird" or "bluebird," or after their cry, like "catbird" and "mocking-bird." From the Indians they borrowed many names, such as moose, chipmunk, pecan, tobacco, canoe, hammock. The Indian names for rivers and lakes were often kept.

Religion. — The colonists were very religious. Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas adopted the Episcopal or English Church. Every one was obliged to pay for its services. Maryland had originally been planned as a refuge for the Roman Catholics, but the Protestants in time outnumbered them twelve to one. In Massachusetts and Connecticut most people were Congregationalists. Baptists were numerous in Rhode Island and North Carolina, and Quakers in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Wherever the Scotch-Irish settled, Presbyterian churches were founded.



Old South Church, Boston

Superstitions. — The colonists had many strange notions, now called superstitions. One was a belief in witchcraft, which they brought over from England and Europe. There the belief in witches was widespread. If butter was slow in coming when cream was churned, the colonist thought that witches were in it and must be driven out by dropping a red-hot horse-shoe into the cream. If pigs were sick they were supposed to be bewitched.

Horse-shoes or broomsticks were often placed over doorways to keep out witches. To be a witch, that is, possessed by an evil spirit, was regarded as worse than a misfortune — it was a crime. Many hundreds had been put to death

in Europe as witches. Salem, Massachusetts, gained an unhappy fame because of a panic about witches which seized the village early in 1692. Certain girls, troubled with what is now called hysteria, said they were tormented by witches, and accused neighbors, chiefly poor, ignorant, old women. Before the panic was over twenty persons had been found guilty by the courts and executed. This superstition lingered a long time after the persecutions at Salem ceased.

Amusements in the Colonies. — The colonists had much hard work to do, but they found time to play. When corn-husking season came, or the frame of a house was to be raised, the neighbors gathered to help. As soon as the work was done all sat down to tables loaded with good things. Sometimes the men joined in a wolf hunt. The chase was always exciting and ended in the destruction of a dangerous pest.

The planters enjoyed horse-racing and fox-hunting. The Dutch introduced several healthful sports — bowling, skating, and sleigh riding. In Boston the boys kicked balls back and forth, somewhat after the manner of football. They had many other games such as boys play nowadays.

In New York and the southern colonies an occasional band of actors from England played in the chief towns. The Puritans, like the Puritans in England, were opposed to the theatre, and would not allow plays in their towns.

Dress. — The well-to-do colonists followed English fashions. The planters and merchants especially tried to dress like the London merchants with whom they dealt. On Sundays and holidays the men wore wigs of long, powdered hair, tied in a cue, three-cornered hats covered with lace, coats of plush or broadcloth, often in bright colors, embroidered vests, tight-fitting knee-breeches, long silk stockings, and pointed shoes with silver buckles. The Puritans and Quakers dressed more simply. Indeed, few of the colonists could afford finery, and most of them dressed in homespun or leather or deerskin.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the appearance of the older settlements change? Where were colonists to be found who were living as the earlier settlers had lived?

2. Why did the colonies differ greatly in occupations and manner of life? In what ways did they differ?

3. Is it strange that the colonists did not have many things which we now have? Name some of the things that we use every day which they did not have. How were the houses heated and lighted?

4. Why were the colonists not as careful in farming as farmers today?

5. How was a plantation managed? What did the overseer do? Who were the laborers on plantations? What did they raise? In what part of the South was farming like that in the North?

6. Why did the colonists do so many things in their own houses instead of doing them in factories as today? What work was done in the homes as domestic industries?

7. What industries were forbidden in the colonies? Why did parliament tell the colonists what they should make and what they should not make?

8. Why did parliament pass the Navigation Acts in the first place? What limits did these place on trade in the "enumerated articles"?

9. What profitable trade did the northern colonies find? Why did parliament try to stop part of this trade? Did the plan of parliament succeed?

10. What did the colonists use as money? Why was colonial paper money not a good kind of money?

11. Why were the colonial schools few in number? Why did the southern colonies have even fewer schools than the northern colonies?

12. What colleges were founded in colonial days? What was the main object of the people in founding colleges? In what way did Franklin's Academy at Philadelphia differ from the others?

13. Why was *Poor Richard's Almanac* so widely read and so popular? What useful things did it teach the people?

14. How did the English language in the colonies differ from English as spoken in England?

EXERCISES

1. Visit a museum and examine all articles which illustrate colonial life, and tell about these in class.

2. Gather pictures of colonial houses, money, farm tools, furniture, etc.

3. Make out a list of the domestic or home industries carried on by men and women in colonial times. Underscore any which are still found in the homes.

4. Collect examples of superstitions or strange notions still known, whether believed or not.

5. Make two lists of amusements — one for colonial times, another of those common in some part of the United States today.

CHAPTER XIII

HOW THE COLONIES WERE GOVERNED

Another English Mistake. — It was a mistake for the rulers of England to act as if the colonists did not have the same rights of trade as the people who remained in England. They made another mistake in changing their plans of colonial government. At first they allowed the colonists to govern

GREAT SEAL GRANTED TO THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES IN 1685

themselves almost independently. But after the colonies became large, the government interfered more often in the management of their affairs. This interference was carried so far that the colonists thought their rights were in danger. The disputes which took place were commonly about what the colonial governments should be permitted to do, rather than about the way in which they should be organized.

Local Government. — The colonists, like Americans nowadays, had local governments, managing villages or cities or counties, and provincial governments, for whole colonies, corresponding to the present state governments.

In New England the town meeting, a general meeting of the men, settled such matters as the care of the common fields, the roads, ferries, bridges, and fences. Boston retained the town form of government until long after the Revolution. At the town meeting were chosen the town officials — selectmen, constables, fence-viewers, field-drivers, pound-keepers for stray cattle, and tithing-men to arrest loafers and Sabbath breakers and to keep order among the boys at church.

In the southern colonies, including Maryland, as many of the settlers lived on large farms or plantations, nothing like the town meeting was convenient. Instead, the governor of the colony appointed justices of the peace who managed the affairs of each county. The middle colonies, New York and Pennsylvania, used a mixture of the two systems. Both systems were familiar to the colonists before they left England.

Provincial Government. — Legislatures existed in every colony. They were modeled after the English parliament. At the head of the colonial government was a governor. In Connecticut and Rhode Island he was chosen by the people, in Pennsylvania [1] and Maryland he was appointed by the proprietor, and in the other colonies by the king. Massachusetts originally had the right to choose a governor, but lost it during the reign of Charles II.

Laws adopted by the colonial legislatures might be vetoed by the governor or disapproved by the government in England. One difficulty was that it took two or three years to obtain either approval or disapproval from the English government. The decision, when made, sometimes annulled laws adopted many years before. For example, in 1754 the king disapproved of laws made by North Carolina in 1715. The Pennsylvanians were required by their charter to send each law to England for approval within five years of its pas-

[1] Delaware had the same governor as Pennsylvania.

sage, but they avoided the requirement by making the laws good for a period less than five years. Sometimes the vetoes disapproved bad laws, but often they annulled laws which were reasonable; for example, certain laws of Massachusetts which simply repeated rights claimed for Englishmen in the Great Charter five hundred years before.

FANEUIL HALL, BOSTON, IN COLONIAL TIMES
"The Cradle of Liberty"

One thing which made such vetoes disagreeable to the colonists was the fact that the English kings ceased after 1707 to veto acts of parliament. Consequently the veto was used only to prevent colonial legislatures from making laws. This seemed unfair. If parliament could make laws for Englishmen at home, why should not the colonial assemblies do the same for Englishmen in the colonies?

As the kings had begun to rule through officials who remained in office only with the consent of a majority of the members of parliament, it was parliament, and not the king, that did the vetoing. Parliament became a many-headed

monarch, which, unfortunately, was as likely to misunderstand the needs of the colonies as ever Charles I or his two sons.

Legislatures and Governors. — The legislatures of New York and Massachusetts had many disputes with the governors. One New York governor spent upon his own pleasures money which the legislature had raised for new fortifications. The legislature then appointed a treasurer to take charge of expenditures, and was not very generous in the amounts which it voted. The governor threatened to have the taxes levied on the colony by parliament. The legislature finally declared that only the representatives chosen by the people had the right to vote away their money. This was the same language which parliament had used a hundred years before in its disputes with James I and Charles I.

The legislators thought that a governor would be more likely to listen to their wishes if he depended upon them every year for his salary. In this practice they were simply following the example set by parliament in dealing with kings. One Massachusetts governor refused to accept the sums voted to him as salary because his orders from the home government declared that he must insist upon a permanent, rather than an annual, settlement of his salary.

The English government made another blunder in failing to entrust the management of colonial affairs to a single set of officials. Colonial business was distributed among different departments of the English administration, as English business was, and sometimes the two were badly confused.

Attacks on Colonial Charters. — At different times, some of them long before 1750, plans were proposed in England to make the colonies more dependent upon the will of officials appointed by the home government. In 1684 the charter[1]

[1] A charter described the rights of colonists, for example, their right to choose a governor or to select representatives to their assembly.

of Massachusetts was taken away. The people of Connecticut feared the same misfortune. There is a story that when the royal agent went before the general assembly of Connecticut to demand the charter, the debate was purposely prolonged until late in the evening. Finally the candles were blown out, and when they were relighted the charter had disappeared. Some one had carried it off and hidden it in the hollow of an oak, known thereafter as the Charter Oak.

Sir Edmund Andros

After the portrait in the State Library at Hartford

After James II became king he made Edmund Andros governor of all the colonies north and east of the Delaware River; that is, New Jersey, New York, and all New England. Andros was given power to make laws, raise taxes, and settle disputes in his own court. In this James was treating the liberties of Englishmen in the colonies with the same contempt with which he treated their rights in England. The revolution of 1688 soon sent the king into exile.

In 1689, when the people of Massachusetts learned what was taking place in England, they seized Andros, threw him into Castle William in Boston harbor, and then sent him back to England. Two years later Massachusetts received a new charter, but one which did not permit the people to choose their governor. Plymouth was at this time united with Massachusetts.

Ten years later a party in parliament attempted to pass a bill taking away the charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut, the only colonies which could still elect their governors, and depriving the proprietors of other colonies of their con-

trol. The purpose was to weaken the Quakers and the Puritans, the first being strong in Pennsylvania, and the second in New England.

Bacon's Rebellion. — Sometimes troubles in the colonies arose over what the governor left undone, rather than over what he did. Governor Berkeley of Virginia in 1676 neglected to defend from Indian attacks the planters on the frontier, then a short distance northwest of Richmond. He was apparently afraid of losing a profitable trade with the Indians. When the planters asked for protection he not only refused to listen to them, but ordered them to send no more petitions. The Virginians decided to help themselves, and under the leadership of Nathaniel Bacon, whose plantation had also suffered from Indian raids, marched against the Indians.

BACON QUARTER BRANCH
Where Bacon had a plantation near the falls of the James

No sooner were Bacon and his followers on the frontier fighting the Indians than Berkeley proclaimed them rebels for waging war against his will. Bacon prepared for war with the governor, and, it is said, suggested that Virginia, Maryland, and Carolina join together, choose their own governors, and manage their own affairs. He drove the governor out of Jamestown, and set fire to the village so that Berkeley might not again take refuge there. Bacon's sudden death deprived the Virginians of their leader and the rebellion ended. About thirty of his followers were put to death and their property seized. But the discontent was so great that Berkeley was recalled by the English government.

Customs Officials. — There were many other officers in the colonies besides the governors who were appointed by the king. The most unpopular were those whose duty it was to enforce the trade laws, like the Navigation Acts and the Sugar Act. When juries of colonists would not convict those who disobeyed these laws, the English government set up what were called "Admiralty Courts,"[1] where a judge appointed by the king decided without a jury whether the person accused was guilty. This made the trade laws all the more unpopular, so that many men thought it was not wrong to disobey them.

WHIPPING-POST

Punishments. — In the punishment of ordinary offenses or crimes the colonial courts were less harsh than the English courts. In England about 200 crimes were punished with death. Among these were sheep stealing, pocket picking, even if the amount was no more than a shilling, and stealing an article worth five shillings from a shop. In the colonies many crimes were also punished with death. Executions were public, and handbills were often circulated explaining the crime and holding up the fate of the criminal as a warning to evil-doers.

The purpose of several of the more ordinary punishments was the disgrace of the wrong-doer in the sight of his neighbors. The whipping-post, the pillory, and the stocks were in common use. The maker of the first stocks in Boston was sentenced to sit in them an hour because the magistrates

[1] Special courts to try offenses against the shipping laws.

thought he charged too much. A man in North Carolina who had stolen five dollars' worth of goods was sentenced to thirty-nine lashes on the bare back. In England he would have been hanged.

French and Spanish Colonies. — The English colonies, notwithstanding their disputes with their governors or other officials, had a great many more rights of self-government than either the Spanish or the French. As ordinary Frenchmen had little or no share in the government at home, it is not surprising that they had none in the colonies. Each colony had a governor to command the soldiers and an *intendant* to manage affairs. The governor, *intendant*, and judges were appointed by the king. There were no juries. The Spanish colonists had town councils or *cabildos*, but no assemblies representing a whole colony.

PILLORY

QUESTIONS

1. What two mistakes did the rulers of England make in governing their colonies? Upon what kind of subjects were the disputes between England and the colonists most common?

2. What did the New England town meeting do? What were the names of the chief officers in a town? Why was there no town meeting in the southern colonies? What took the place of it there? Where did the colonists get their ideas about local government?

3. Describe the general government of a colony. Who appointed the governors? Who chose the members of the legislatures or assemblies? Were the colonial legislatures completely free to make laws for the colonies? Why did the colonists think the veto of their laws by the English ministers unjust?

4. What disputes did the legislatures and governors have over the government of the colonies? How did the legislators manage to hold the governors in check? What words did the representatives of the colonists use which Englishmen had used in quarrels with James I and Charles I?

5. What officials of England were concerned with the government of the

colonies? What additional blunder did England make in the management of colonial affairs?

6. What colonies lost their charters at one time or another? Why was it a disadvantage for a colony to lose its charter?

7. How did Massachusetts get rid of Edmund Andros? Why did the people of Massachusetts dislike him so much?

8. Why did the Virginians, led by Bacon, rebel against the rule of Berkeley? Did the rebels fail or succeed?

9. What was the purpose of the colonists in punishing wrong-doers? Which were more severe, the colonial or the English laws for punishing crime? Which had the more liberties, the English, French, or Spanish colonies?

EXERCISES

1. Learn about the present local government in some part of the United States. Does this resemble most closely the local government in the northern, middle, or southern colonies?

2. Find out what town or city officers now perform the duties of the officers of an early New England town.

3. Make out a list of the officers, appointed by England, mentioned in this chapter, who had anything to do with governing the colonies.

4. Prepare a list of crimes which are now punished severely, and tell how the mode of treatment differs from the colonial method.

In the Stocks

CHAPTER XIV

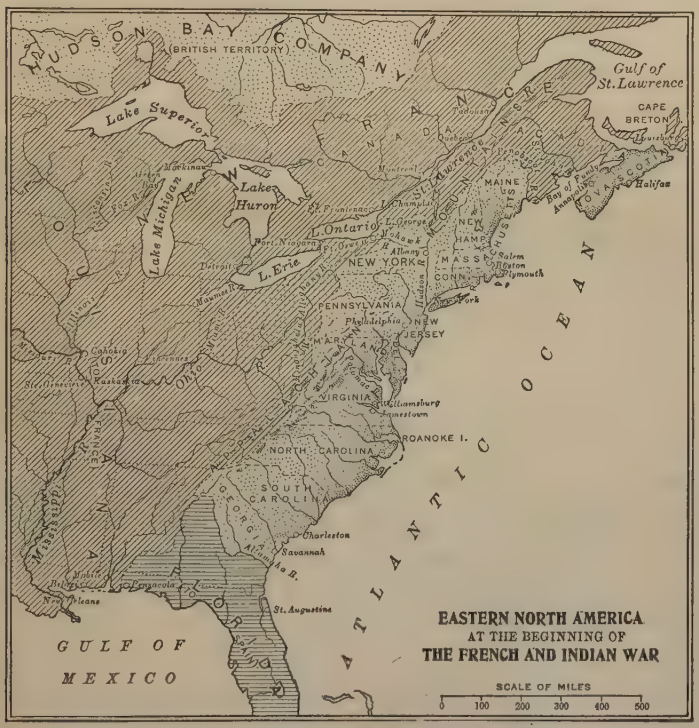
CONQUEST OF THE FRENCH COLONIES IN AMERICA

Crossing the Appalachian Barrier. — Before 1750 there were few English settlers beyond the great Appalachian barrier. Traders from the Carolinas and Georgia had ventured westward as far as the Mississippi. Traders from Virginia, Pennsylvania, and New York were beginning to find their way across the mountains to the banks of the Ohio. As the population of the colonies on the coast increased, it was certain that emigrants would follow in the footsteps of the traders. A vast unoccupied region stretched between the Appalachians and the French villages in the Illinois country. Moreover, the French settlements were small, containing altogether about 500 inhabitants.

Western Claims. — The region between the Appalachians and the Mississippi was not considered either by England or by France as vacant. The French claimed that their territory extended eastward to the mountains, while the English declared that they owned the whole country as far as the Pacific. According to the original charters of Virginia, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, their lands extended to the South Sea, which was supposed to be not far distant. When it was discovered how far away the Pacific Ocean was, the colonists simply lengthened their claims.[1] After all, the question whether the region beyond the mountains belonged to the French or to the English had to be decided by force.

[1] When the Carolinas and Georgia received charters the Pacific Ocean was made their western border, although the royal government knew by that time how distant the Pacific Ocean was.

French and English Rivalry. — In 1749 the French and English were each wide awake to what the other was doing. They had just finished a war into which they had been drawn as allies of Frederick II of Prussia and Maria Theresa of Austria. They had fought in India and America as well as in Europe.



The territory occupied by the English is dotted

The French governor of Canada and the English in Virginia now took steps looking toward the occupation of the Ohio country. The French crossed from Lake Erie to Lake Chautauqua, and from there to the Allegheny River. They floated past the spot where Pittsburgh now stands, and went on as far as the Great Miami, returning to Lake Erie by the

Maumee. Wherever they saw English traders, they warned them to leave the country.

The Ohio Company. — While this expedition was completing its work, some Virginians, among them Lawrence and Augustine Washington, brothers of George Washington, formed a land company. The company was granted half a million acres south of the Ohio, between the Monongahela and the Kanawha rivers, on the condition of settling a hundred families in the region and of building and holding a fort.

CUMBERLAND AND THE NARROWS OF WILL'S MOUNTAIN, MARYLAND

The natural passage or gateway through the first range of mountains on the route to the Ohio country

One of the best routes from Virginia into the Ohio country lay along the upper Potomac to Cumberland, Maryland, where Will's Creek breaks through the mountains. This route crossed the ridges into the valley of the Youghiogheny or of the Monongahela. In 1753 the Ohio Company prepared to construct a fort near where the Allegheny and the Monongahela join to form the Ohio. The spot was admirable as a half-way station and a gateway through which emigrants might pass on to the region lower down on the Ohio. At the same time a few daring Virginia families took up lands along the Monongahela.

Advance of the French. — Meanwhile Governor Duquesne of Canada sent a thousand men to the Ohio country, ordering them to build forts and hold the mountain passes against English intruders. They built a log fort at Presque Isle, near Erie, cut a road southward to French Creek, and seized an English trading post at the junction of French Creek and the Allegheny River. They were now

only 120 miles from the Forks of the Ohio, where Pittsburgh is situated.

The news alarmed the Ohio Company, which had not yet built its fort. The governor of Virginia decided to send a messenger to warn the French that they had entered territory which was not theirs, and to demand that they withdraw. For the perilous journey Major George Washington was finally chosen. Although only twenty-one, he had

THE OHIO COUNTRY AND THE NEW FRENCH FORTS
Showing especially the rivers, mountain barrier, and new French posts

already been several years on the Virginia frontier, engaged in surveying. He was a skilled woodsman and a hardy traveler. The death of his brother Lawrence had brought him an estate of 2,500 acres beautifully situated on the Potomac. Such a plantation gave him a position of influence in the colony.

Washington started with several companions in October, 1753. Part of the way his route lay through trackless forests. The rivers were swollen and the ground was covered

by the early winter snows. The journey took six weeks. Washington found the French commander at Fort Le Boeuf, near the northern boundary of Pennsylvania. The response which he carried back to Governor Dinwiddie declared that the French king was master of all the country west of the Alleghany Mountains.

WASHINGTON'S ROAD

Near where he met the French under Jumonville

Fort Duquesne. — A conflict was now certain. A body of Virginians was hurried forward to the Forks of the Ohio to build a fort. The French, not to be outwitted, descended the Allegheny River in canoes, drove away the workmen, and constructed a strong fort. They named it Fort Duquesne in honor of the governor of Canada. Meanwhile a large force of Virginians had been raised to occupy this position. The advance, commanded by Washington, met a party of Frenchmen in the woods on the western slope of the mountains. A fight followed, in which the French claimed that the Virginians fired the first shots. Jumonville, the leader of the French, and 20 of his men were killed, and the rest surrendered. Soon afterwards Washington was attacked near the same spot at Fort Necessity, which he had hastily constructed. It was his turn to surrender, but the French permitted him to march back to

Virginia on the understanding that no attempt should be made within a year to establish settlements west of the mountains.

The Seven Years' War. — This was the beginning of the French and Indian War. In Europe, France and England were still at peace. Indeed, war was not declared for two years. It then became part of a struggle in which almost all European countries were engaged, and which was called the Seven Years' War. France and Russia combined with Maria Theresa of Austria to take from Frederick the Great of Prussia the territory which he had gained in the preceding war.[1] England aided Frederick. This great European war accounts for the length of the French and Indian War in America. Both England and France were also fighting in India. The consequence was that neither could spare more than a small part of their troops for the conflict in America.

The English had a navy which was larger and stronger than the French navy, a very important advantage in a struggle beyond the sea. The English had 130 battle-ships,[2] while the French had only 63. Although the French had more soldiers than the English, they could not safely risk them on the ocean because they would probably be captured by the English fleet. It was therefore merely a question of time when the French in America would be overwhelmed. The only chance of the French was by crushing Frederick the Great, England's ally, on the Continent. But after a few successes they were badly beaten by the Prussian king.

Indian Allies of France. — The Indians in the West took sides with the French. They looked upon the English beyond

[1] The War of the Austrian Succession, 1740–1748, in which Frederick had conquered Silesia; called King George's War in the colonies.

[2] A battle-ship, or ship-of-the-line, at that time was, like other ships, made of wood. It ordinarily had three decks, and was armed with from 74 to 120 cannon.

the mountains as intruders. As English settlements increased, the hunting grounds were spoiled. The French were few in number and interfered little with Indian lands. The fact that many of the Indians united with the French explains why the war was called "French and Indian."

The Albany Congress. — The English were afraid that the Iroquois would join the western Indians against them, and arranged a conference at Albany in the summer of 1754. Commissioners from several colonies were present at this Albany conference or "Congress." They not only tried to strengthen the friendly attitude of the Iroquois, but also talked over plans of forming a union of the colonies.

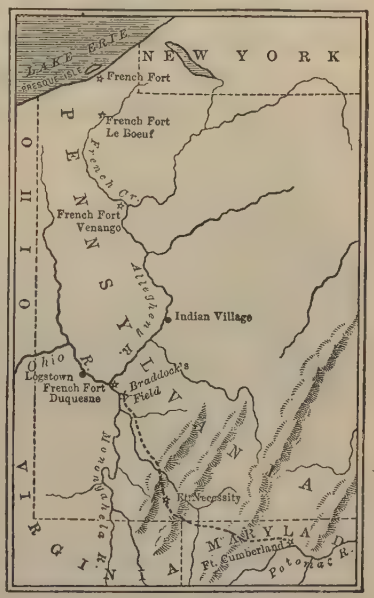
Franklin's Plan of Union. — Benjamin Franklin, a delegate from Pennsylvania, was one of the first to see the need of uniting the colonies. In the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, his newspaper, he printed a picture of a wriggling snake cut into pieces, with the initial letter of a colony on each piece. An old superstition said that if a snake was cut up and the pieces allowed to touch, they would knit together and the snake would live. Underneath the picture Franklin printed the words, "Join or die." He meant that the colonies must unite or they would perish.

DEVICE PRINTED IN FRANKLIN'S "PENNSYLVANIA GAZETTE"

Franklin's plan was favored by the delegates at Albany, but was not adopted by the colonies. Few persons had any interest in union at that time. Moreover, some of the colonists were not alarmed, as the Virginians were, by the advance of the French into the Ohio country. The Quakers, who were very influential in Pennsylvania, were opposed to war of any kind, and especially a war for territory. The colonies south of Virginia stood in dread of the Spaniards or of the Indians on their frontier.

Something greater than a quarrel about a frontier post at the Forks of the Ohio would be required to move the colonies toward union.

Braddock's Defeat. — In 1755 the English government sent two regiments across the Atlantic to assist the Virginians in seizing Fort Duquesne. The expedition was commanded by General Braddock, a soldier of courage and ability, but wholly ignorant of fighting in the wilderness against Indians and woodsmen. Washington was in command of the Virginians.



Route of Braddock's Expedition

After a difficult march through the forest, during which ax-men were constantly busy cutting down trees in order to widen the trail, Braddock reached and crossed the Monongahela about eight miles above Fort Duquesne. While his army was moving through a wide bushy ravine, a French force with many Indians suddenly attacked it on all sides. Washington and the Virginians wished to scatter in the forest and fight behind trees in Indian fashion, but Braddock thought such a method cowardly and tried to keep his men in line, after the manner of fighting in Europe.

The result was disaster. After having four horses shot under him, Braddock fell mortally wounded. Washington lost two horses, and four times bullets tore through his clothes. Sixty-three out of eighty-six officers and two-thirds of the

soldiers were killed or disabled. Washington led the wreck of the army back to the nearest refuge. Daniel Boone, a young woodsman from North Carolina, was among the fleeing wagon drivers.

Washington's Defence of the Frontier. — The French and their Indian allies now raided the frontier settlements of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. The French commander boasted that all these settlements were destroyed, adding that "the Indian villages are full of prisoners of every age. The enemy has lost more since the battle than on the day of his defeat."

PIONEER BLOCK-HOUSE IN THE MONONGAHELA COUNTRY
The loopholes for defense may be seen under the eaves

It was three years before another expedition was ready to start against Fort Duquesne. Washington did his best to defend the border, which was nearly 300 miles long. At the chief mountain passes he built block-houses, strengthened by stockades. His hardy followers were armed with home-made flint-lock muskets, and carried tomahawks and scalping knives in their belts. They had no regular army uniform, but wore buck-skin hunting shirts, leggings, and moccasins. Washington's skill in defending the "back door" of the colonies gave him a greater reputation than that of any other colonial officer.

The Acadians. — The English, in 1755, also made an unsuccessful attempt to dislodge the French from Lake Champlain, where their presence threatened the settlements in the Hudson River region. Far to the northeast, in Nova Scotia, the English feared that the Acadians, who had remained in

the country after the French gave it up in 1713, would revolt and aid the French soldiers in reconquering it. Accordingly, they decided to "clear the whole country of such bad subjects." The English officers took lands and cattle, burned houses and barns, and scattered the Acadians among the English-speaking colonies from Massachusetts to Georgia. A quarter of a century later a French traveler passing through Baltimore noticed that a fourth of its inhabitants were Acadians. The removal of the Acadians is the subject of Longfellow's poem *Evangeline*.

William Pitt

William Pitt. — In 1757 the English found a new leader in William Pitt, who was made prime minister. Under his inspiring influence no sacrifices seemed too great for the people of England or of the colonies. Colonial assemblies and parliament, colonial officers and British officers, worked together. The colonies raised their share of troops; the mother country had to provide only tents, arms, and ammunition. Pitt's boldness swept away all obstacles. He once said, "I am sure I can save this country and that nobody else can;" and he convinced people that he spoke the truth.

Capture of French Posts. — In 1758 Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, was captured and the fortress destroyed. Fort Frontenac, which guarded the route from the upper St. Lawrence into Lake Ontario, was also taken and destroyed. Another expedition, in which Washington had a share, crossed Pennsylvania to attack Fort Duquesne. The soldiers found only blackened ruins; the French garrison had blown up the fort and fled. The English named the cluster of

traders' cabins Pittsburgh, in honor of the great leader in parliament.

The reason why the French abandoned Fort Duquesne was the lack of troops to defend it. During the years from 1758 to 1762 the English captured nine-tenths of all the French ships of war, and France could send little help to the brave officers and soldiers who were fighting her battles in America. In consequence they lost a fortress far more important than either Louisburg or Fort Duquesne. This was Quebec, their oldest settlement.

British Soldier

Montcalm and Wolfe; Fall of Quebec, 1759. — The French commander at Quebec was the Marquis de Montcalm, the governor of New France. To increase his troops he pressed into service boys of fifteen and men of eighty. Indians were called from far and wide. For the attack Pitt sent General James Wolfe. Both Montcalm and Wolfe were men of unusual ability. Montcalm had one advantage, the position of Quebec, which made it almost unassailable.

For nearly three months Wolfe watched before Quebec, trying to find a weak place in Montcalm's line of defense. Every attack that he made was easily repulsed. But Montcalm had posted most of his army to guard the more distant approaches, thinking the heights immediately above the city, rising in a wall from 250 to 350 feet, could be easily defended. He once said that a "hundred men posted there would stop the whole English army." Wolfe discovered a zigzag path up the side about a mile and a half from the city.

Volunteers attempted this path one dark night in September. They surprised the guards stationed at the top. By morning 4,000 men were in possession of the heights, or Plains of Abraham, as they are commonly called.

Montcalm immediately advanced to the attack. The British did not fire until the French were within forty yards. The French first wavered, then fled, and Montcalm could not rally them. Both he and Wolfe were mortally wounded. Five days later Quebec surrendered. Only Montreal was now left in the hands of the French, and it surrendered the next year.

QUEBEC IN 1759

Close of War. — This practically closed the war in America, but the Seven Years' War in Europe dragged on three years longer. Before it was over Spain took the side of France and also suffered defeat, the English capturing Havana in Cuba and Manila in the Philippine Islands. In 1763 peace was made and France abandoned to England all her possessions east of the Mississippi River. Spain was obliged to give up Florida, a loss which the French tried to make good by giving to Spain New Orleans and all the French territory west of the Mississippi.

New English Colonies. — The English now had three new colonial provinces, Canada and East and West Florida. They

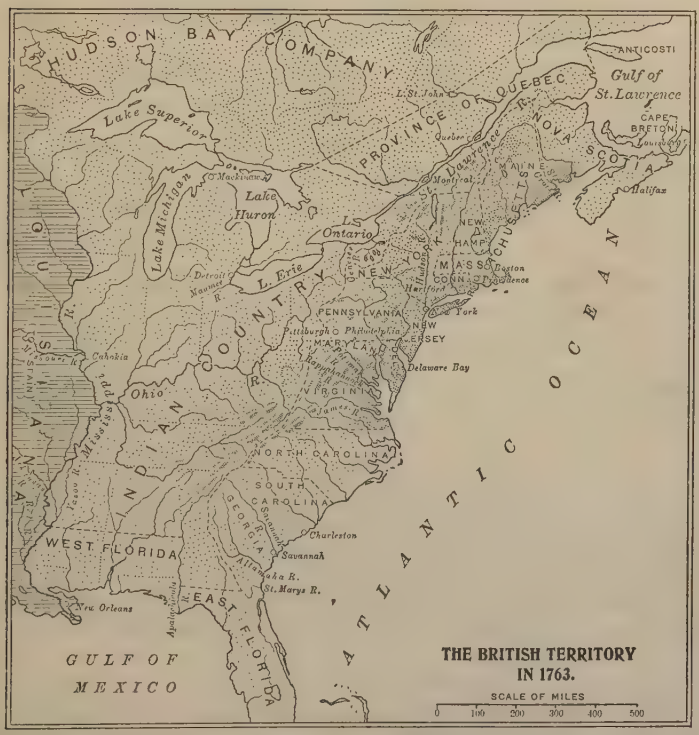
intended to provide governments much like those of the other colonies. At first it was impossible to call together assemblies representing the inhabitants, and the provinces remained under control of military governors.

An Indian Territory. — The vast region north of the Floridas and reaching from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi River was reserved to the Indians. The English government intended to open it for settlement gradually. Meanwhile all persons who had settled there were warned to leave. In this action the government showed little respect for the claims of the different colonies under their charters. Colonists whose eyes had long been turned to the fertile valleys beyond the mountains would not be likely to obey the royal proclamation, especially after the dangers of Indian attack were lessened.

Pontiac's War. — The western Indians were not willing to submit to English rule. When the English commander-in-chief showed no readiness to win their favor by presents, or even to allow trade with them to continue, they united under the leadership of Pontiac, a chief of the Pottawattamies, and attacked all the posts from Detroit to Niagara. With the exception of these two, all were taken and their garrisons massacred. The Indians of the Ohio Valley attacked the posts in western Pennsylvania and advanced into the central part of the colony. They finally realized that they could not drive the English away and gave up the struggle. The royal proclamation forbidding settlers to enter the region west of the Alleghanies was intended to quiet their fears and pave the way to friendly relations with them.

Pitt and the Rights of the Colonists. — At the close of the war the colonists rejoiced over the victory as much as the English at home. They were proud to belong to an empire so strong and great. But already something had happened which showed that their enthusiasm might be short-lived.

Even while the war was raging, the northern colonies were reluctant to break off their trade with the French West Indies. Pitt was angry at the conduct of these colonial traders. He was told that the best way to stop such trade with the enemy



was to enforce the Sugar Act. This he resolved to do, and the news caused a panic among the Boston merchants.

It was difficult to find smuggled goods unless the officers could break into storehouses and other places where they thought these goods were hidden. An old English maxim declared every man's house his castle, into which no officer could enter without a special warrant. For the purpose of searching for smuggled goods general warrants, called "writs

of assistance," were used in England, and they had also been used in the colonies. In order to stop their issue the merchants resolved to appeal to the old legal maxim. Although they lost their case, James Otis, a young lawyer, awakened the spirit of resistance by declaring boldly that the colonists had all the rights of Englishmen.

At the same time the Virginians were aroused by a new royal veto. Patrick Henry, another young lawyer, declared in court that this veto was an act of misrule so serious that the people would be justified in resistance.[1]

Success in the war with the French might quiet such disputes for a time, but they were certain to begin again unless the English government made its laws more fair to the colonists. Furthermore, disputes would endanger the hold of the government on the colonies, now that the expulsion of the French from Canada and the Mississippi country had partly freed the colonists from the need of British protection.

QUESTIONS

1. What class of English colonists had begun crossing the Appalachian barrier before 1750? What settlements had previously been made in the Illinois country? What colonies claimed western lands? Where did they obtain such claims?

2. What steps did the French take in 1749 toward occupying the Ohio country? What did the Virginians do? What was the best route from Virginia to the Ohio country?

3. What forts did the French build in order to hold the Ohio country? Why did Washington make a journey to one of these forts? What answer did the French commander give him?

4. What trouble caused the French and Indian War in America? Of what greater war did this French and Indian War become a part? What were the nations fighting about in Europe? How did the war in Europe affect the war in America? What advantage had England in the war in America?

5. Which side did the western Indians take? Why? Why was the Albany Congress held? What plan did Franklin present to the Congress? Why did not the colonies form a union?

[1] This was the famous "Parson's Cause," which arose from an attempt of the Virginians to pay the clergy in money during a scarcity of tobacco. See page 46.

6. Whom did England send to capture Fort Duquesne? Why was his expedition defeated? What happened during the next three years on the western frontier? What did Washington do during this time?

7. Who were the Acadians? What was done with them? What poem describes their fate?

8. Who became the English leader in 1757? What was the result of the change in leaders? What part did the colonies take in the French and Indian War?

9. How did the English finally manage to capture Fort Duquesne? What change was made in its name? Why did the English succeed so well in America after 1758?

10. Why was Quebec so hard to capture? Who commanded the French defense? Who led the English attack? How did Wolfe capture Quebec?

11. What colonies did England gain as a result of the Seven Years' War? What European country came into possession of Louisiana? Why did France give up Louisiana?

12. How did England decide to use the western territory gained during the war with France? What colonies also claimed these lands (see p. 148)? Why was it difficult for England to enforce the orders against settling in the West? Why did England wish to keep white settlers from the West?

13. What happened during the French and Indian War to offend the colonists and arouse them against the mother country? Why was the danger from this trouble all the greater now that France no longer held Canada?

EXERCISES

1. Locate on an outline map the Louisiana, the Illinois, and the Canadian settlements and the new forts on the Ohio frontier. Which claim to the Ohio country do you think was the better, the French or the English? Give reasons for your opinion.

2. Write a paper describing Washington's part in the French and Indian War.

Important Dates:

1749. The French and English take the first steps toward seizing the Ohio country.
1755. Braddock's expedition.
1759. The fall of Quebec.
1763. End of the French and Indian War, and the struggle of France and England for colonies in the New World.

CHAPTER XV

WHY THE ENGLISH COLONISTS BECAME REVOLUTIONISTS

After the War.—Occasions of dispute between the colonies and the mother country were not likely to disappear with the end of the French and Indian War. On the contrary, they were bound to increase. Money was sorely needed. The public debt of Great Britain had been doubled in seven years. If the laws regulating colonial trade could be made to bring more revenue into the British treasury, they would certainly be enforced. New taxes were probable.

It was likely that the government would grasp the reins of colonial management more firmly. Three new colonies with a foreign population, besides a vast Indian territory, would require the presence of soldiers. The British fleet, which had covered itself with glory during the war, must do guard duty on many seas, for the British now, if never before, ruled an empire. Conquests in India, as well as in America, gave the rulers of England a feeling of power and a sense of responsibility. Here was the danger. If, in making new plans for their many territories, they treated the colonists as subjects, rather than Englishmen with rights equal to their own, the triumph over France might be turned into a great disaster.

Grenville's Plan. — In 1763 George Grenville, a new prime minister, decided that 10,000 British troops must be kept in America and that the colonies should be required to pay at

least a third of the expense. He planned to raise the money chiefly by a stamp tax. He planned also to enforce thoroughly the laws regulating trade, and to change the Sugar Act so that it would bring in revenue. Like many other Englishmen at the time, he forgot that the colonists had paid more than their share in the recent war and that they still had a part of their war debts to pay.

Grenville also did not take into account the fact that the taxes charged in English ports on goods sent to America were really paid by the colonial purchasers.[1] He and the other members of parliament represented chiefly English landholders and merchants. It was hardly fair that they should regulate colonial trade in such a way as to increase their profits, and at the same time try to shift the burden of taxation from their shoulders to those of the colonists. But they could not be expected to see this, believing, as they did, that the main use of colonies was to increase the riches of the mother country.

King George III

The king of England was George III, then at the beginning of his reign of sixty years. He was shrewd but narrow-minded, and disliked the colonists because they were inclined to manage their own affairs. He heartily approved Grenville's plan. As many members of parliament were chosen through his influence, they voted as he wished. All through the troubles with America the "king's friends" were on the wrong side of nearly every question.

[1] In the eighteenth century all countries collected export as well as import duties.

Stamp Act. — The new Sugar Act of 1764 did not excite the colonists as much as the news that parliament was to introduce a stamp tax. The colonists denied the right of parliament to tax them directly.[1] This right, they said, belonged to their own legislatures, where their representatives sat.

A Stamp of 1765

It was of little use for the English officers to reply that the colonists were as much represented in parliament as the people of Manchester or Birmingham or other cities in England. Such arguments did not convince the colonists. They believed that a legislature which voted taxes must be chosen by the persons who paid the taxes. They declared that there should be, "No taxation without representation." In England multitudes of tax-payers could not vote. If a town centuries before had not been big enough to send members to parliament, it could not now send members, however big it was. At the same time towns which once had received the right to send members and had grown small did not lose the right. If now the same lord owned all the property in a town or in three or four of them, he chose the members. Scores of members were in reality named by great lords or by the king. The colonists would not have endured a legislature like that. Their objection, however, was that parliament did not represent them in the sense in which they understood representation.

The Stamp Act was passed in 1765. It was modeled upon a statute then successfully enforced in England. Stamps varying in value from one cent to $50 must be placed upon

[1] In 1765 the colonists did not object so much to indirect taxes like those in the Sugar Act as to direct taxes like those in the Stamp Act. But after the repeal of the Stamp Act they became convinced that any tax levied by parliament, instead of by their own legislatures, was injurious to them.

every almanac, newspaper, pamphlet, marriage license, and college diploma, as well as upon a multitude of legal documents. Officials were to be appointed to sell the stamps.

Resistance to the Stamp Act. — Patrick Henry of Virginia and James Otis of Massachusetts were again the boldest advocates of colonial rights. Henry's resolutions against parliamentary taxation, passed in the Virginia assembly, were copied in colony after colony. Town-meetings and county assemblies, ministers in their sermons, and newspapers in their editorials, joined in the effort to awaken the whole people.

Patrick Henry

A storm of declarations of rights, remonstrances, and petitions swept the country. The legislatures of Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Virginia protested against the Stamp Act. James Otis suggested a general Congress of delegates from the colonies. In October, 1765, representatives from nine met in the city hall at New York. Other colonies sent letters of sympathy. The Congress at New York, usually called the Stamp Act Congress, decided to publish a statement of the colonial side of the controversy and to petition the king and parliament. Franklin's device, the wriggling snake with the motto, "Join or die," reappeared at the head of the newspapers. Such events showed that a spirit of union was growing rapidly. Long before the Congress met at New York, the people had decided the fate of the Stamp Act.

The merchants of the chief towns canceled their orders and refused to buy any more goods of British make until

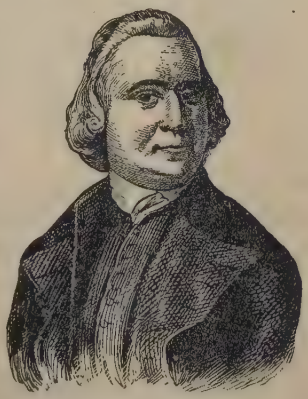
parliament should repeal the Stamp Act. Women bound themselves to wear nothing but homespun, and conducted spinning matches where they offered prizes for the fastest and best work. Many zealous patriots in Boston and Philadelphia circulated pledges to eat no lamb in order to increase the amount of wool. Secret societies, which called themselves Sons of Liberty, laid plans to destroy the stamps and drive the distributors from office. Posters or handbills on the doors or street-corners threatened all who tried to sell stamps or to use them. The Sons of Liberty of New York scattered broadcast a handbill which said, "The first man that either distributes or makes use of Stampt Paper let him take Care of His House, Person, and Effects." The Stamp Act was to go into effect on the first day of November, 1765. When the day arrived the stamp distributors had quietly resigned and no stamps could be found.

Repeal of the Stamp Act, 1766. — The refusal to buy or use British-made goods or to trade with British merchants — a sort of boycott — accomplished all that the colonists hoped for. The merchants, manufacturers, and even the artisans, in Great Britain soon began to suffer from the loss of colonial business. Parliament hesitated to drive the colonies into open rebellion and ruin its own merchants besides. In March, 1766, the famous Stamp Act was repealed.

The news of the repeal was received with rejoicing in England and America alike. Bells were rung and banquets were held in London as well as in the chief colonial towns. As Pitt had urged repeal, the colonists, forgetting his enforcement of the Sugar Act, displayed his portrait in shop windows. New York and South Carolina voted him a statue. Even the king, though opposed to repeal, enjoyed a brief popularity. The Philadelphia Quakers decided to celebrate his birthday by dressing in new suits of English make, giving their homespun clothing to the poor.

New difficulties soon arose over the Quartering Act, which required the colonies to furnish the royal troops stationed in the different places with lodgings, fuel, and food. The colonial leaders considered this a mere substitute for taxation. New York, Boston, and Charleston refused to comply. The dispute with New York lasted three years. Its governor refused to allow the legislature to sit until the colony finally yielded and furnished the soldiers with quarters.

The Townshend Acts.—In 1767, barely a year after the repeal of the Stamp Act, parliament under the leadership of Charles Townshend passed other acts to raise money from America. The acts put taxes on glass, lead, paper, and tea shipped to the colonies. Besides these duties, the colonists were still paying, as required by the Sugar Act, taxes on sugar, molasses, coffee, wine, and indigo. Altogether the list was a long one, and the colonial leaders were convinced that parliament intended to establish a permanent system of taxation. They liked the law still less when they were told that the income from the new taxes would be used partly to pay the salaries of colonial governors and judges, who would thus be more independent of the colonial legislatures.

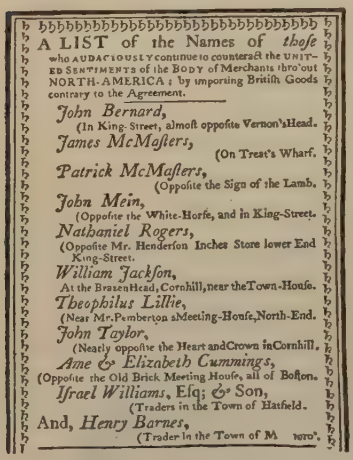


SAMUEL ADAMS

Resistance to the Townshend Duties.—Samuel Adams, a citizen of Boston, like Otis, now revived the pledges against buying or using British-made goods. "We will form," he exclaimed, "an immediate and universal combination to eat nothing, drink nothing, wear nothing, imported from Great Britain." Washington wrote to his agent in London telling him not to send any articles taxed by parliament, for, said he,

"I have very heartily entered into an association not to import any article which now is, or hereafter shall be, taxed for this purpose until the said act or acts are repealed."

The senior class at Harvard College agreed, in 1768, to graduate "dressed altogether in the manufactures of the country." The students of Rhode Island College, now Brown University, followed their example the next year. Some colonists resorted to violence in resisting the hated taxes. In New England towns, especially, mobs of town toughs on more than one occasion roughly handled merchants who ventured to import British goods. Conflicts between customs officers and mobs were frequent. Such acts of lawlessness went unpunished, for no jury could be found which would convict the guilty.



A LIST of the Names of *thoſe* who AUDACIOUSLY continue to counteract the UNITED SENTIMENTS of the BODY of Merchants thro'out NORTH-AMERICA: by importing Britiſh Goods contrary to the Agreement.

John Bernard, (In King-Street, almoſt oppoſite Vernon's Head.
James McMaſters, (On Treat's Wharf.
Patrick McMaſters, (Oppoſite the Sign of the Lamb.
John Mein, (Oppoſite the White-Horſe, and in King-Street.
Nathaniel Rogers, (Oppoſite Mr. Henderſon Inches Store lower End King-Street.
William Jackſon, At the Brazen Head, Cornhill, near the Town-Houſe.
Theophilus Lillie, (Near Mr. Pemberton's Meeting-Houſe, North-End.
John Taylor, (Nearly oppoſite the Heart and Crown in Cornhill.
Ame & Elizabeth Cummings, (Oppoſite the Old Brick Meeting Houſe, all of Boſton.
Iſrael Williams, Eſq; & Son, (Traders in the Town of Hatfield.
And, *Henry Barnes*, (Trader in the Town of M[illegible]

A Boycotting Poster

Reduced facsimile

Boston Massacre, March 5, 1770. — In 1768 two British regiments were sent to Boston, where attacks upon customs officers had been most serious. Benjamin Franklin had warned the king's advisers that if soldiers were sent to America to enforce taxation they would not find a rebellion but might make one. Their presence angered the citizens. The rougher men and boys lost no opportunity of insulting the soldiers. The wonder is that no serious clash took place for nearly two years. But on the evening of March 5, 1770, a mob began pelting a sentry in front of the custom house, and when several guards came to his rescue knocked one of them down. The soldiers thereupon fired into the crowd, killing

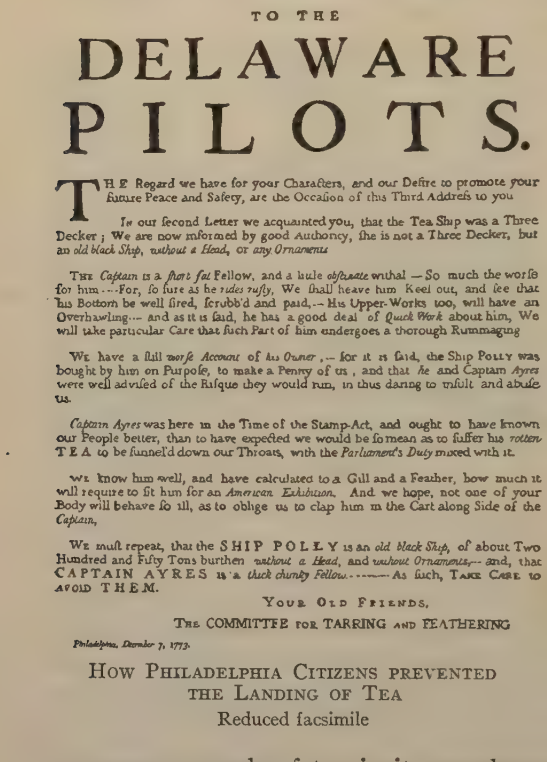
five and wounding six. The colonists called the affray the "Bloody Massacre" or the "Boston Massacre."

Tax on Tea. — The pledges not to use British goods were so effective that within a year the colonial trade decreased nearly $4,000,000. Parliament yielded again and repealed all duties provided for in the Townshend acts except a tax of six cents a pound on tea. It was thought that the colonists would not object to one small tax, and that they would become accustomed to paying taxes levied by parliament. This was another blunder, for the colonists objected to taxed tea as strongly as before. The women of Edenton, the colonial capital of North Carolina, banded together to use no more of the "pernicious herb." Sassafras or raspberry tea, they declared, was better than the bitterness in taxed tea.

THE BOSTON MASSACRE
From an engraving by Paul Revere

Committees of Correspondence. — Many of the colonists were becoming weary of such constant strife. If the British government had not made new blunders every year or two, perhaps the spirit of resistance would have died out. Meanwhile Samuel Adams and other Boston patriots organized Committees of Correspondence in the Massachusetts towns in order to keep the acts of the government constantly before the people. At this time some Rhode Islanders burned

the British revenue vessel *Gaspee*, and the government tried to find them in order that they might be taken to England for trial. Such a threat aroused the Virginia assembly, and it proposed the formation of Committees of Correspondence between the colonies. In this way the machinery for organized resistance was being created.



TO THE

DELAWARE PILOTS.

THE Regard we have for your Characters, and our Desire to promote your future Peace and Safety, are the Occasion of this Third Address to you

In our second Letter we acquainted you, that the Tea Ship was a Three Decker; We are now informed by good Authority, she is not a Three Decker, but an *old black Ship, without a Head, or any Ornaments*

THE *Captain* is a *short fat* Fellow, and a little *obstreate* withal — So much the worse for him — For, so sure as he *rides rusty*, We shall heave him Keel out, and see that his Bottom be well fired, scrubb'd and paid, — His Upper-Works too, will have an Overhawling — and as it is said, he has a good deal of *Quick Work* about him, We will take particular Care that such Part of him undergoes a thorough Rummaging

WE have a still *worse Account* of his *Owner*; — for it is said, the Ship POLLY was bought by him on Purpose, to make a Penny of us, and that *he* and Captain *Ayres* were well advised of the Risque they would run, in thus daring to insult and abuse us.

Captain Ayres was here in the Time of the Stamp-Act, and ought to have known our People better, than to have expected we would be so mean as to suffer his *rotten* TEA to be funnel'd down our Throats, with the *Parliament's Duty* mixed with it.

WE know him well, and have calculated to a Gill and a Feather, how much it will require to fit him for an *American Exhibition*. And we hope, not one of your Body will behave so ill, as to oblige us to clap him in the Cart along Side of the *Captain*,

WE must repeat, that the SHIP POLLY is an *old black Ship*, of about Two Hundred and Fifty Tons burthen *without a Head*, and *without Ornaments*, — and, that CAPTAIN AYRES is a *thick chunky Fellow*. — As such, TAKE CARE to AVOID THEM.

YOUR OLD FRIENDS,

THE COMMITTEE FOR TARRING AND FEATHERING

Philadelphia, December 7, 1773.

HOW PHILADELPHIA CITIZENS PREVENTED THE LANDING OF TEA

Reduced facsimile

Boston "Tea Party." — In 1773 parliament made a plan about the tea trade which aimed to accomplish three things — tempt the colonists to buy tea on which a tax was paid, put an end to colonial smuggling in tea,[1] and help the East India Company sell its tea. The company then had 17,000,000 pounds of tea in its warehouses. The plan was to permit the company to send a certain amount of tea to America without first selling it to the English merchants. Thus the price would be very low in the colonies because the merchant's profits would not be included. This would

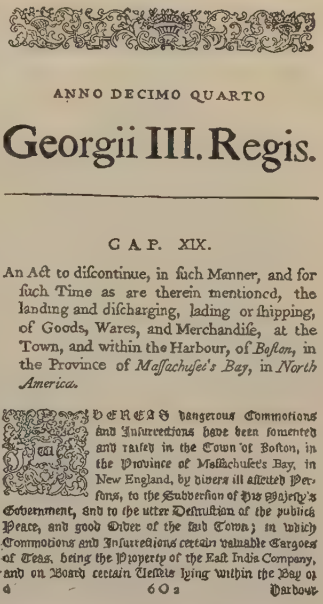
[1] At this time most of the tea used in the colonies was smuggled in. Colonial vessels regularly bought tea in the East Indies or in Holland and found ways of slipping it into the ports without paying the British tax.

make the colonists forget about the tax. At the same time the smuggler would lose the business.

Several ships loaded with tea were sent to Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston. The news aroused great indignation in the colonies. In Philadelphia and New York committees of citizens persuaded the captains of the ships to return to London without entering the harbors.

At Charleston the royal officers stored the tea in the cellars of the custom house. There it remained. No agent of the East India Company dared to pay the duty and offer it for sale. Three years later, when war had begun, South Carolina sold the tea to pay war expenses.

In Boston the royal officials were determined to land the tea. A great public meeting was held in the Old South Meeting House. The leaders failed to convince the governor that the ships must be sent away. Night having come on, the crowd rushed to the wharves. Forty or fifty men, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships. By nine o'clock every chest of tea had been broken open and the contents thrown into the sea.



ANNO DECIMO QUARTO

Georgii III. Regis.

CAP. XIX.

An Act to discontinue, in such Manner, and for such Time as are therein mentioned, the landing and discharging, lading or shipping, of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, at the Town, and within the Harbour, of *Boston*, in the Province of *Massachuset's Bay*, in *North America*.

WHEREAS dangerous Commotions and Insurrections have been fomented and raised in the Town of Boston, in the Province of Massachuset's Bay, in New England, by divers ill affected Persons, to the Subversion of His Majesty's Government, and to the utter Destruction of the publick Peace, and good Order of the said Town; in which Commotions and Insurrections certain valuable Cargoes of Teas, being the Property of the East India Company, and on Board certain Vessels lying within the Bay of

602 Harbour

FIRST PAGE OF THE BOSTON PORT BILL
Reduced facsimile

Punishment of Boston. — The royal government now attempted to punish Boston as an object lesson to all the colonies. The port was closed and the custom house removed to Salem until the citizens should pay the East India Company about $75,000, the value of the tea which had been

destroyed. A little later the government of the colony was so changed that the colonists could not hold a town meeting without the governor's consent. Their juries also were selected by sheriffs appointed by the governor. These laws were called the "Intolerable Acts." [1] They excited the Massachusetts people so much that General Gage, the new governor, who had arrived with four more regiments, was obliged to fortify the narrow neck of land which connected Boston with the surrounding country.

The distress of Boston, with its trade ruined, stirred the sympathy of the other colonies. Salem offered the free use of its wharves and warehouses to the Boston merchants. The towns of Massachusetts and other colonies sent supplies. Israel Putnam, a veteran of the French and Indian War, drove to Boston a flock of sheep from his Connecticut town. Washington headed a subscription in Fairfax County, Virginia, with a gift of $250, promising also to raise a thousand men, maintain them at his own expense, and march to the relief of Boston.

The Continental Congress, 1774. — Parliament and King George had counted on dealing with Massachusetts alone. Never was a graver mistake made. The other colonies declared that Boston was "suffering in the common cause." The members of the Virginia assembly, Washington, Patrick Henry, and Thomas Jefferson among them, suggested that a general Congress, like the Stamp Act Congress of 1765, should be held. The Virginians sent their plan to the other colonies and invited Massachusetts to name the date and place. On September 5, 1774, the Congress met in the

[1] In 1774 the colonists were also excited by the passage of the Quebec Act, for the government of that province; first, because the province was extended southward to the Ohio River, notwithstanding the land claims of the colonies on the coast, and second, because no provision was made for a provincial assembly representing the inhabitants.

Carpenters' Hall in Philadelphia. It was called the Continental Congress, and included delegates from twelve colonies.

The Continental Congress, like the Stamp Act Congress, drew up a declaration of the rights of the colonies and a statement of their grievances. Their list of grievances had grown much longer. The "Intolerable Acts" were called "unpolitic, unjust, and cruel." Two decisions of the Congress were particularly important. By the first the members agreed to suspend all trade with Great Britain. No one was either to import or consume tea or any other British goods. After one year no American should sell or export his goods to England. Committees should be appointed in every county or town to see that the agreement was faithfully kept. By the second decision Congress, when it adjourned, proposed that a second Continental Congress should meet in May, 1775.

CARPENTERS' HALL, PHILADELPHIA, 1774
Where the first Continental Congess met

Two Parties in America. — Many colonists thought that resistance to the English government had gone too far. They believed that parliament in repealing the Stamp Act and most of the taxes in the Townshend acts had treated the colonies fairly. They also thought that the frequent attacks on the English officials, who tried to enforce the laws, justified measures like the Intolerable Acts. The merchants had grown tired of the steady loss of trade. Among the friends of Great

Britain in the colonies were, of course, many office holders. All who sided with Great Britain were called loyalists or Tories. Their opponents called themselves patriots, and American historians have usually given this name to them. The English leaders had other names for them — demagogues and rebels.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the colonies and mother country more likely to have trouble after the French and Indian War? What was the chief danger when England began making new plans?

2. What was Grenville's plan? Why was this unfair to the colonists?

3. What was the main objection of the colonists to the Stamp Act? How were many members of parliament chosen? Who voted for members of the legislatures in the colonies?

4. How did the colonists prevent the enforcement of the Stamp Act? Who were their leaders in resisting it?

5. Why did parliament repeal the Stamp Act? What grounds of dispute still remained?

6. What taxes did Townshend add to those already in force? Make a list of the taxes that parliament required of the colonies during 1768. Why did the colonies dislike Townshend's acts even more than Grenville's?

7. What methods did the colonists use to resist Townshend's duties? Why did parliament send soldiers to Boston? What warning did Franklin give the king's advisers?

8. Why did parliament repeal most of the Townshend duties? What taxes did the colonists still have to pay? What method did Samuel Adams invent in order to inform the colonists about the acts of parliament? What addition did Virginia propose to his method? Why did Virginia make its proposal?

9. What change did parliament make in 1773 with regard to tea? How did the colonists prevent the payment of the tea tax?

10. How did parliament try to punish Boston for the destruction of the tea? What steps did the other colonies take to aid Boston?

11. What two decisions did the Continental Congress at Philadelphia form? How was the first decision or agreement to be enforced?

12. Did all American colonists agree with those leaders who resisted the acts of parliament? What names were given to those who sided with Great Britain? To those who supported the colonial resistance? What had parliament done which the loyalists believed should satisfy the patriots? What acts of the patriots did the loyalists condemn?

EXERCISES

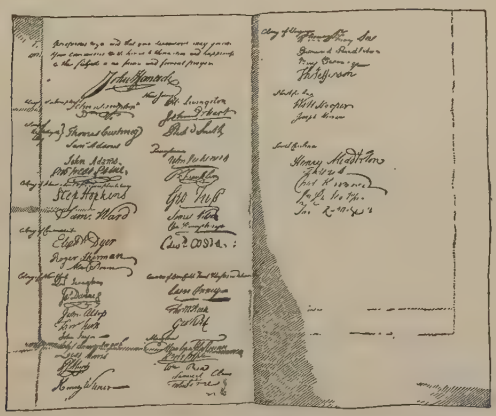
1. Make a list of the acts of parliament mentioned in this chapter and in previous chapters, especially Chapter XIII, which were the occasion of disputes with the colonies.

2. Who can vote in your state today for members of the legislature? Who could have voted in the colonies for the members of the legislatures?

3. Find out, by asking some one who knows, how taxes are raised in the Philippine Islands under the United States government. Do the people of the Philippine Islands have any grievances like those of the American colonies?

Important Dates:

1765. Parliament under Grenville's leadership passes the Stamp Act.
1767. Townshend places further taxes on the colonies.
1774. Meeting of the Continental Congress in Philadelphia.



THE PETITION SENT BY THE COLONISTS TO KING GEORGE III

The rejection of which led to the Revolution
Reduced facsimile of original in the British Public Record Office, London

CHAPTER XVI

THE OUTBREAK OF WAR

Preparations for War. — One of the consequences of the Intolerable Acts in 1774 was that the Massachusetts House of Representatives reorganized itself as a Provincial Congress. A committee of safety which it appointed began to prepare for armed resistance. All over New England companies of militia were formed and were drilled regularly. Every fourth man was pledged to take the field at a minute's notice and was called the "minute-man." Military stores were collected. Other colonies also appointed committees of safety and prepared for a struggle.

Early in September it looked as if war would begin at once. General Gage sent troops to seize 300 barrels of powder stored a few miles from Boston. The report spread that the soldiers had killed six colonists. Before it was disproved 40,000 men had seized their guns and started for Boston. A similar expedition in April, 1775, led to fighting.

Lexington and Concord. — General Gage wished to destroy the military stores which the colonists had collected at Concord, eighteen miles northwest of Boston. Every effort was made to keep the expedition a secret. It left Boston late at night on April 18, and marched by unfrequented paths until well on the way to Lexington and Concord. The Boston "patriots," among them Dr. Joseph Warren, heard of the plan early in the evening, and sent messengers to warn the colonists. Paul Revere was one of the messengers.

Before leaving he asked a friend to hang two lanterns in the tower of the North Church as a signal to patriots in Charlestown that the British had started.

Revere and other messengers were soon riding madly through the country-side calling the villagers to arms. The ringing of bells, the beating of drums, and the firing of guns told the British soldiers that the secret was out. They reached Lexington, twelve miles on their way to Concord,

THE BATTLE AT LEXINGTON, APRIL 19, 1775
After an engraving made by two Continental militia-men who were in the battle

just as day was breaking. On the village green stood fifty or sixty minute-men. Resistance was out of the question and their leader ordered them to withdraw. But in the confusion a shot was fired, and soon the firing became general. The colonial militia retreated after eight of their number were killed and ten wounded. Only one or two of the British were wounded.

At Concord the British found few stores, because most of these had been hidden securely or removed to neighboring towns. They destroyed thirty or forty barrels of flour, spiked two or three cannon, and threw some cannon balls into a mill-

pond. Meanwhile the minute-men were assembling rapidly on the hills about the town. A large body soon attacked and drove off the British soldiers who had been stationed at the North Bridge.

A Disastrous Retreat. — Fighting began in earnest about noon when the British started on their return march to Boston. From behind every hill, house, or stone wall the minute-men and farmers shot at the column of soldiers. The march was soon changed into a disorderly flight. Reinforcements from Boston met the British at Lexington. But so rapidly did the militia gather on the route that the whole body of British soldiers barely escaped capture. Panic-stricken and exhausted, they found refuge at nightfall under the guns of the British ships near Charlestown.

The Salem Gazette

Salem, Maſſachuſetts, April 25, 1775

The Britiſh pillaged almoſt every houſe they paſſed by, breaking and deſtroying doors, windows, glaſſes, *etc.*, and carrying off clothing and other valuable effects. It appeared to be their deſign to burn and deſtroy all before them; and nothing but our vigorous purſuit prevented their infernal purpoſe from being put in execution. But the ſavage barbarity exerciſed upon the bodies of our unfortunate brethren who fell, is almoſt incredible; not contented with ſhooting down the unarmed, aged, and infirm, they diſregarded the cries of the wounded, killing them without mercy, and mangling their bodies in the moſt ſhocking manner.

PART OF THE ACCOUNT OF THE BATTLES OF LEXINGTON AND CONCORD IN A COLONIAL NEWSPAPER

Meaning of Lexington and Concord. — The losses on both sides in this struggle were heavy, although the British losses were three times those of the colonists. The chances of a peaceful settlement of the controversy between parliament and the colonies were now slight. Blood had been shed and the fighting spirit was increased by the tales spread in England and the colonies. The colonists were told that the British had begun the battle and, besides, had destroyed property and maltreated families along their route. The English heard that the wrongs were all on the other side. It was clear, at all events, that the colonial militia would fight to defend their rights. "I never believed," said a British officer sadly, "that they would have attacked the king's troops." Lexington and Concord were not riots like the

"Boston Massacre," but the opening battles of a great revolution.

Siege of Boston. — The minute-men who had driven the British into Boston did not return home, but remained encamped in a great circle about the city. They meant that General Gage should send no more expeditions to seize their stores. They soon determined to drive him out of Boston. Other companies of militia came in from towns too far away to have a share in the first day's fighting. John Stark, a veteran of the French wars, led the New Hampshire militia. Israel Putnam rode from Connecticut, one hundred miles, in eighteen hours, reaching the camp on the morning of April 21. He had left orders for his men to follow immediately.

On the return of the troops from Concord, they were very much annoyed, and had ſeveral men killed and wounded, by the rebels firing from behind walls, ditches, trees, and other ambuſhes; but the brigade, under the command of Lord Percy, having joined them at Lexington with two pieces of cannon, the rebels were for a while diſperſed; but as ſoon as the troops reſumed their march, they began to fire upon them from behind ſtone walls and houſes, and kept up in that manner a ſcattering fire during the whole of their march of fifteen miles, by which means ſeveral were killed and wounded; and ſuch was the cruelty and barbarity of the rebels, that they ſcalped and cut off the ears of some of the wounded men who fell into their hands.

PART OF A BRITISH ACCOUNT OF CONCORD AND LEXINGTON

From the *London Gazette*, June 10, 1775

Armies are not created in a day. Military leaders now believe that men must be taught at least two years before they can be called trained soldiers. At first, therefore, the minute-men at Cambridge and other towns around Boston formed an armed crowd rather than an army. Each man had brought his own gun, with a small stock of powder and bullets. Few were in uniform, most of the men being dressed as they were when the alarm sounded. It was astonishing that they had assembled so rapidly. It seemed as if they had sprung out of the ground at the stamp of some great leader's foot. The "patriots," with their committees of correspondence, had made plans

to meet just such an event as General Gage's ill-fated expedition.

Second Continental Congress, May, 1775. — The Second Continental Congress met on May 10, 1775, in Philadelphia, at the Old State House. Thirteen colonies from New Hampshire to Georgia were represented. Nova Scotia, Quebec, and the Floridas held off. Their inhabitants had no interest in the cause which was bringing the other colonies together. How the conditions had changed since the first Congress met in September, eight months earlier! The delegates were assembled now, not to devise ways of compelling Great Britain to repeal the "intolerable" laws, but to manage a war which had actually begun. This was more serious business. Congress decided to make the cause of Massachusetts that of all the colonies. It promptly adopted the New England militia encamped around Boston as a "Continental" army. Steps were taken to raise other troops and find food and supplies for all. A delegate from Virginia, the foremost soldier in America, George Washington, was unanimously chosen commander-in-chief. Washington set out for Cambridge, the headquarters of the army, on June 21. He had proceeded scarcely twenty miles from Philadelphia when a rider hurrying with messages to Congress gave him the news of another battle with the British.

Chamber of Supplies, Watertown, June 18, 1775.

GENTLEMEN,

THE Welfare of our Country again induces us to urge your exertions in ſending to the Magazine in this place, what can be procured of the following Articles, Salt Pork, Beans, Peas, Vinegar and Blankets, the prizes whereof as well as the Carting ſhall be allowed according to the Cuſtom of your Place which we deſire you to certify—It is of the utmoſt Importance that the Army ſhould be ſupplied agreeable to the Reſolve of the Congreſs more eſpecially with theſe Articles, the four firſt of which are neceſſary for the Subſiſtence as well as the Health of the Men, and the other for their Comfort—The occaſion of the Deficiency in *Blankets* is moſtly owing to a number of Men enliſted from Boſton and other Towns which have been vacated, and they all muſt be procured immediately or our worthy Countrymen will ſuffer.—

As the Country affords every thing in plenty neceſſary to ſubſiſt the Army, and we cannot at preſent obtain many things but by your Aſſiſtance, we aſſure ourſelves that you will act your parts as worthily as you have done and hope that the Event of all our exertions will be the Salvation of our Country.

To the Seleſtmen and Committee of Correſpondence for the Town of Stoughton

DAVID CHEEVER, per Order of Committee of Supplies.

CALL FOR FOOD AND BLANKETS
JUNE 18, 1775

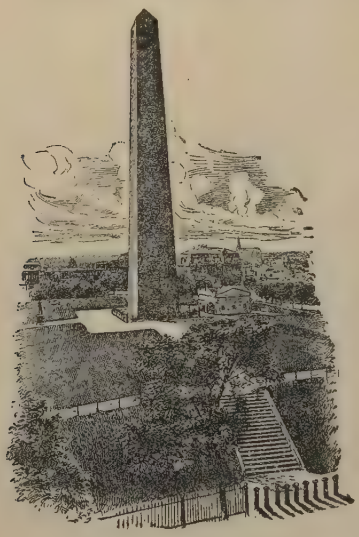
Bunker Hill, June 17. — Boston could not be attacked directly except by a narrow neck of land, called Boston Neck,

which General Gage had covered with batteries. On the north and on the south, however, were two peninsulas, crowned by hills, which reached out toward the city. These hills were called Bunker Hill and Dorchester Heights. Batteries placed on them could soon destroy Boston. To forestall such a danger General Gage decided to occupy them on June 18. The American leaders learned of the British plans and determined to act first. On the night of June 16 Colonel William Prescott with 1,200 men stole quietly along the neck of the northern peninsula and over Bunker Hill to Breed's Hill, which was somewhat lower but nearer Boston. His men could hear the regular monotonous cry of "All's well" uttered by sentinels on the ships in the Charles River. Silently and rapidly, with pick and shovel, they threw up earthworks. Within these they constructed low platforms of earth or boards to enable them to fire across the top. The British could scarcely believe their eyes when morning dawned.

BOSTON, BUNKER HILL, AND CHARLESTOWN

The British officers did not think that raw militia would resist a direct attack. They might have seized the neck of

the peninsula and occupied Bunker Hill, which would have turned the tables on the colonial troops. But they decided to attack in front. Prescott, when he saw their red lines advancing up the hill, knowing that his men had few bayonets and only a small stock of powder, told his men to wait until they saw "the whites of their eyes," to "aim at the handsome coats," and to "pick off the commanders." At the first fire whole lines of British went down, and their comrades fell back in disorder. Again they advanced in the face of a murderous fire, and again they fell back, leaving the ground covered with dead and wounded. General Howe, who was in command, ordered a third attack. Suddenly the firing from the redoubt slackened and ceased. The powder of the colonial soldiers was used up. They had nothing left save the butts of their muskets and stones. The consequence was that the British soon drove them back across Bunker Hill and out of the peninsula. The British paid dearly for their victory, losing over a thousand men in killed and wounded. No wonder one of the colonial officers remarked that they would like to sell another hill at the same price!



Bunker Hill Monument

Making an Army. — Washington arrived at Cambridge on July 2, about two weeks after the battle, and took command of the army the following day. His first task was to begin the soldierly training of the bands of farmers and

mechanics which made up the revolutionary force. He must also procure powder, bullets, and cannon. Many cannon and a large amount of powder had already been seized by Ethan Allen and a band of "Green Mountain Boys" at Fort Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain. The cannon could not be brought to Cambridge until the snows of the next winter made it easy to haul them. Other needed supplies were obtained by the capture of a British store-ship as it was nearing Boston. Washington showed great patience and tact, as well as firmness, in the tedious work of preparing the army for war.

GEORGE WASHINGTON IN 1775
After the portrait by Peale

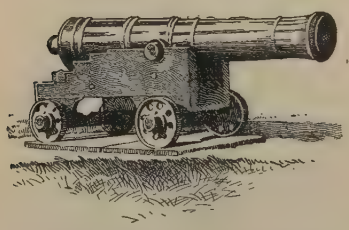
Among the soldiers were many Irish, Scotch-Irish, and German immigrants.[1] Whole companies, especially in Pennsylvania, contained few or no English colonists. Some of the soldiers had seen service in European armies, others in the recent war with the French and Indians. Many of the farmers, accustomed to life on the frontier or to hunting, readily learned the lessons of warfare.

While Washington was busy with his task at Cambridge,

[1] By the Revolution the thirteen colonies ceased to be dependencies of England. They became instead parts of a new nation formed in North America. From this time the people leaving Europe for America are thought of, not so much as emigrants from Europe and subjects of a European kingdom, as immigrants into the United States and members of the Republic. For this reason the words "immigrant" and "immigration" will now be used where "emigrant" and "emigration" have been used.

an attempt was made to invade Canada and seize Quebec. The colonial troops reached Quebec but failed to capture it. Their attempt had one important consequence: it alarmed the British government so much that the army brought together to subdue the rebellious colonists was divided and a part sent to Canada. This lessened the number of troops which Washington had to deal with directly.

General Howe, who had taken the place of General Gage, made no attempt to attack Washington's camps about Boston. Washington did not complete his preparations until winter had come and almost gone. On the night of March 4, 1776, he made a move similar to the seizure of Bunker Hill. His soldiers occupied Dorchester Heights and built two redoubts. General Howe remarked, when morning came and he saw the forts through his glass, "The rebels have done more in one night than my whole army would have done in a month." The British admiral said, "If they retain possession of the heights I cannot keep a ship in the harbor." Howe decided at once that he must either storm forts far stronger than Prescott's defences on Bunker Hill or withdraw from Boston. He chose the latter course, and on March 17 the British fleet, with his army aboard, left the city, bound for Halifax.



One of the Guns Drawn from Ticonderoga to Boston for the Siege

Boston after the Siege. — Nearly a thousand inhabitants of Boston left with the British. Among them were the former officials of the king in the colony and many of the older families, who formed the aristocracy of the town. They went into voluntary exile because they sympathized with the

British cause and feared to remain in Boston without the protection of the soldiers.

Boston's direct experience with war was over. The inhabitants had suffered hardships from famine and disease. Charlestown, a neighboring town, burned during the battle of Bunker Hill, was still a scene of utter desolation. The people bravely went to work to make Boston secure against another British invasion. Every able-bodied man gave two days each week toward rebuilding the fort in the harbor and strengthening the other defenses. In a few days Washington, with the main body of his army, departed for New York, which he thought the British would soon attempt to seize. The capture of Boston was Washington's first victory.

Flag of the United Colonies in 1775–1777

QUESTIONS

1. In what ways did the colonists prepare for war with the mother country?

2. Why did the British commander at Boston send an expedition to Concord? What happened during the journey? Why was it harder after this to make a peaceful settlement?

3. How was it possible for the patriots so quickly to gather a body of men for the siege of Boston? Why is this body of men called "an armed crowd" rather than an army?

4. What colonies sent representatives to the Second Continental Congress? Why did some English colonies fail to send representatives? What was the difference between the work of the First Continental Congress and the Second?

5. Why did the colonists occupy a position near Bunker Hill? Which side was victorious in the Battle of Bunker Hill?

6. How did Washington secure additional materials of war? What important result came from the attempt to seize Quebec?

7. How did Washington finally drive the British army out of Boston? What inhabitants of Boston sided with the mother country and went into exile?

EXERCISES

1. Locate on an outline map of Boston and the vicinity all places mentioned in this chapter, and tell what happened at each.

2. Examine the two old accounts of the Battle of Lexington on pages 180 and 181 and tell in what ways they differ.

Important Dates:

April 19, 1775. Battles of Lexington and Concord. Beginning of the Revolution.

May 10, 1775. The Second Continental Congress meets at Philadelphia and takes over the conduct of the war.

June 17, 1775. The Battle of Bunker Hill.

March 17, 1776. General Gage, with his entire army and 1,000 loyalists, abandons Boston.

First Flag of the United States
Adopted by Congress in 1777

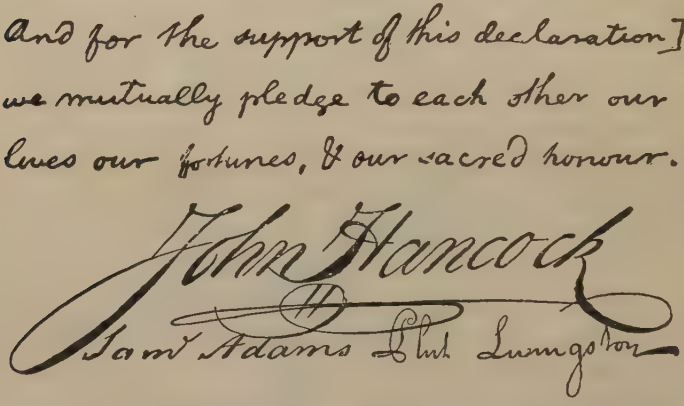
CHAPTER XVII

THE BIRTH OF A NEW NATION

Great Britain and the Colonial Rebellion. — Washington's success in driving the British army from Boston did not convince either parliament or King George that the time had come for conciliatory measures. It made them only more anxious to put forth every effort to subdue the rebellious colonists. They had already refused to reply to a petition of the Continental Congress for a friendly settlement of the difficulties. They had also made the blunder of hiring German soldiers to swell the numbers of their army, forgetting the fact that a little over a hundred years before the attempt to use foreign soldiers to subdue Englishmen had cost Charles I and his principal minister their heads. Parliament also passed an act cutting off the colonies from all trade while the "rebellion" lasted.

Thinking about Separation. — The colonists had begun to think that there was little hope of fair treatment from parliament and king. At first only a few leaders like Samuel Adams, John Adams, and Patrick Henry thought it useless to expect parliament to change its manner of dealing. Most of the colonists would have been glad to return to friendly relations with the mother country. Washington, when on his way to Cambridge in 1775, had promised the members of the New York provincial congress that he would work toward that end. As the winter passed with no better news from England, feeling changed. The colonists asked one another why, if they could not govern themselves *in* the British empire, they should not try to govern themselves *out* of it? If they must fight, why not fight for independence?

Paine's Common Sense. — Thomas Paine, an Englishman who had recently settled in Philadelphia, published a remarkable pamphlet early in 1776. He called it *Common Sense.* Many of the colonists held kings in great reverence, believing that George III was their God-given ruler. Paine ridiculed such ideas. He bluntly called kings "sceptred savages" and "royal brutes." "Of more worth," he declared, "is one honest man to society . . . than all the crowned ruffians

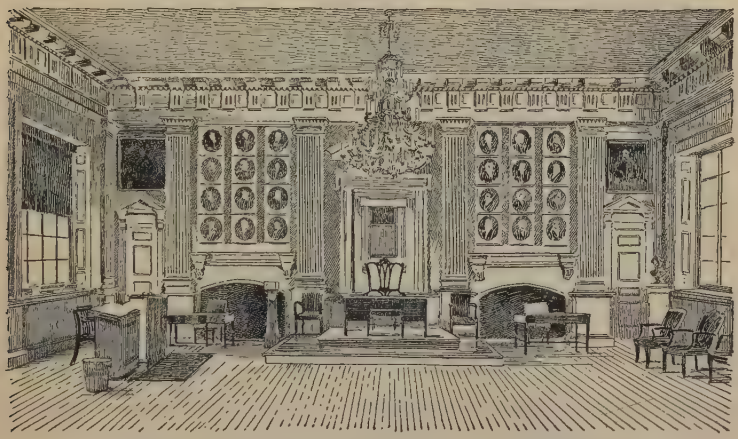

And for the support of this declaration]
we mutually pledge to each other our
lives our fortunes, & our sacred honour.
John Hancock
Sam. Adams
Lynch
Lynch Lumpton

FACSIMILE OF THE CONCLUSION OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE
In the writing of Jefferson, with the first three signatures.

that ever lived." Monarchy instead of being the best form of government was, he said, the worst. And how absurd, he wrote, "to be always running three or four thousand miles with . . . a petition, waiting four or five months for an answer," "or to suppose that a continent should be governed by an island." "The blood of the slain," he added, "cries, 'Tis time to part.'" Much that Paine wrote was so simple, so convincing, such "common sense," that thousands read it and concluded that separation was necessary.

The Declaration of Independence. — The colonies one by one advised their delegates in Congress to work for independ-

ence. Finally, on July 2, 1776, Congress voted "that these United Colonies are, and of a right ought to be, free and independent states; . . . that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." Two days later, July 4, Congress adopted a formal Declaration of Independence, which Thomas Jefferson had written, announcing to the world the new purpose of the colonies. It stated the right to "life,

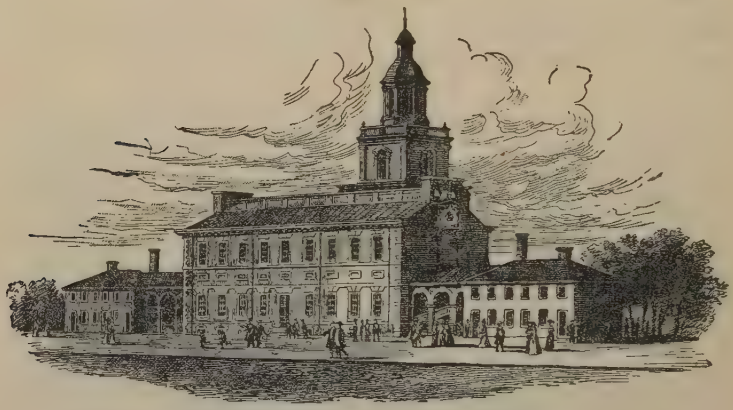


Room in which the Declaration was Signed

liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," which the colonists had claimed for themselves all along, and added a startling list of charges against the king. These were given as the reason for seeking independence. Perhaps some of the charges were not fair, for Jefferson was making a plea, and not writing a history. Most of them, however, were true.

The Royalists or Tories. — About one-third of the inhabitants of the thirteen colonies opposed separation from Great Britain. In New York and Pennsylvania the loyalists and patriots were about equally divided. The Quakers were opposed to war for any purpose. Many loyalists declared

that if the colonies should win their independence from Great Britain, they would only fall victims to discord and desolation. The loyalists thought the patriot leaders self-seeking lawyers and shop-keepers, or debtors who wished to escape paying their British creditors.



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA
Where the Continental Congress met

Making New Governments. — The decision to separate from Great Britain compelled the colonists to remodel their provincial governments. Each colony now became a "state." The royal governors and other officers had already fled to England or taken refuge with the nearest British garrisons or fleets. William Franklin, the royalist governor of New Jersey, though the son of Benjamin Franklin, had been seized by the revolutionists and sent to a Connecticut prison. Not only must the vacant offices be filled, but the governments must be changed in part. John Adams said that the manufacture of governments was as much talked of as saltpeter had been at the outbreak of war when powder was needed.

The only governments which required little change were those of Connecticut and Rhode Island. There the people

had been permitted by the colonial charters to choose their officers, including their governors. The local government in town and country was left undisturbed.

Colonial Constitutions. — In the other colonies the new form or frame of government was set forth in a document called a constitution. This was decided upon in a congress or convention of delegates representing the colony. In some cases it was referred to the voters themselves. The first plan of a constitution in Massachusetts was rejected by the voters five to one. Each constitution explained not only what the officers could do, but what they could not do. The colonists had learned, either from bitter experience with their English officers, or from their reading of European history, to distrust officials. Bills or lists of rights which the people claimed and which their officers must respect were inserted in each constitution. Many of these rights Englishmen had claimed as far back as the time of the Magna Charta. Others, far-sighted Englishmen and Europeans had only begun to claim in the seventeenth or eighteenth century. The principal ones were "Trial by Jury," "No Taxation without Representation," "Freedom of the Press," "Freedom of Elections," and the "Right of Assembly and Petition."

John Adams

Governors and Legislators. — Governors chosen by the people, or by their legislatures, took the place of royal governors. The colonists, fearing "one-man" power, were careful not to give their governors much authority. Most of the powers which the royal governors had exercised were now

given to the legislatures. The legislators were elected for only one or two years, to keep any of them from becoming overbearing or tyrannical through long enjoyment of office. Besides, the constitution-makers scattered the various powers among the law-makers, the governors, and the judges in such a way that one set of officials might act as a check upon another.

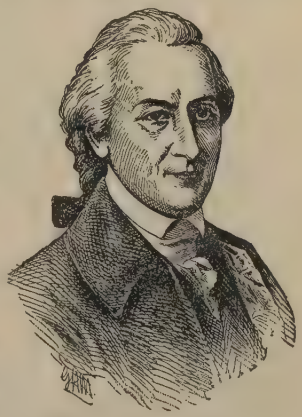
Great care was taken to break away from many old-world customs. No kings, no nobles, no class with special privileges because of birth, such as existed almost everywhere in Europe, were permitted by any of the American constitutions. When some one in Virginia urged that the eldest son ought, at least, to have a double share of his father's estate, Jefferson replied, "Not until he can eat a double allowance of food and do a double allowance of work." [1]

The work of making these constitutions interested not only the colonists but many Europeans, especially thoughtful Frenchmen. Twice during the war, first in 1778 and again in 1781, collections of the constitutions were translated into French and published in Paris. The second collection was translated by a nobleman at the request of Benjamin Franklin.

The First Union of the States. — To Congress belonged the harder task of making a frame of government which should bind the states together. Unlike the state conventions it could not simply remodel a government with which all were familiar. Although it began its work in June, 1776, it was not until the close of the following year that Congress agreed upon a constitution, called the "Articles of Confederation." One difficulty was the jealousy which the delegates from some of the states felt of the influence which other states appeared to have. This partly accounted for

[1] Before the Revolution the eldest son in Virginia, as in Great Britain, inherited the larger share of the father's estate.

the long delay of the states in accepting the "Articles," which went into force in 1781. They did not give the government much power. The "United States" was still little more than a name. The powers which the states consented to give the government of the Confederation were exercised by a Congress similar to the Continental Congress. The delegates had such a horror of kings that they did not even provide for a president.



JOHN DICKINSON

The formation of these new governments marks an epoch in the history of the world. The rights of the people were more carefully guarded than by any other governments that had ever existed. The work which John Adams, John Dickinson, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Benjamin Franklin, and other leaders did in the Continental Congress and in the state conventions was as important as the work of Washington's army in the field. Among the ablest was John Adams. No man had more good ideas on constitution making. No one worked harder for the common good. He was busy from four o'clock in the morning until ten at night, and earned the title of the "Statesman of the Revolution."

Chances of Success. — The colonists had two very different tasks. It was one thing to make over their colonial governments and suit them to new conditions. It was another to win their independence on the battle field. More than once as the Revolutionary War went on the chances of final success seemed against the colonists. The mother country had nearly all the advantages. She possessed a strong war

fleet. Her army, though small, was well trained. Her government owed a great deal of money, but had no difficulty in borrowing more, because it always paid its debts.

The course of the war was influenced by the geographical situation, which gave the colonists one great advantage. This was their distance from England. In those days the voyage across the ocean took about six weeks, sometimes more than twice as long. Often an entire season passed before England could send needed supplies or reinforcements to her armies. Furthermore, the colonies were stretched out in a straggling line over 1,300 miles between the sea and the mountains. The mountain barrier offered them a safe retreat in case their armies were hard pressed. This was another advantage.

For the British, the sea was naturally the base of operations, that is, the place from which all expeditions started. On the sea they could assemble at any time a fleet of war ships and transports strong enough to carry the army anywhere up and down the long coast. If their army marching inland was defeated or seriously threatened, it could hastily return to the coast, reorganize, and start again. By such waterways as Chesapeake Bay and the Hudson River their ships could go far into the interior. The Hudson and Champlain valleys together almost made a highway from New York to Canada, where the colonists had not risen in revolt. These valleys also separated one group of colonies from another.

Capture of New York. — New York, lying at the gateway of the Hudson and possessing an excellent harbor, was marked by nature as the place which a sea-power like Great Britain would attempt to seize. If captured, it would become the center from which to carry on the work of subduing the rebellious colonists. Before General Howe's reinforcements reached him at Halifax and he was ready to sail to New York,

REFERENCE MAP FOR THE REVOLUTION
NORTHERN AND MIDDLE STATES.

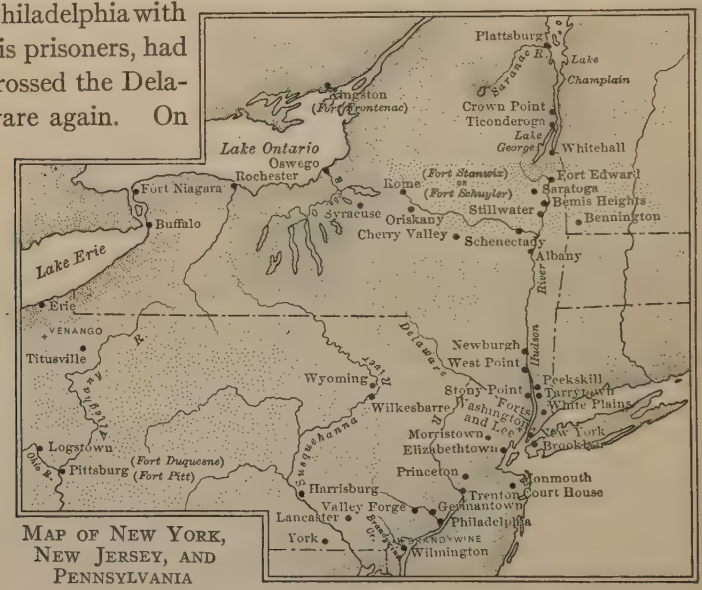
an attempt was made by the British to gain a foothold at Charleston, South Carolina, near the southern end of the colonial line. The attack was beaten off. In August, 1776, Howe appeared before New York. His army was larger, better equipped, and better disciplined than Washington's army. In a series of battles beginning on Brooklyn Heights and ending at Fort Washington, at the northern end of Manhattan Island, the colonial army was defeated and forced to retreat into New Jersey.

Washington finally took refuge behind the Delaware River. As winter came on his army, half-starved and scantily clothed, dwindled away. Only about 6,000 disheartened soldiers remained. Alarmed at the approach of the British, Congress withdrew from Philadelphia to Baltimore. Many of the Philadelphians hid their money and silver and sent their families into the country. Their fears were needless, for General Howe, on December 13, ordered his army into winter quarters in different New Jersey towns. He went back to New York to spend the holidays among loyalist friends. Some of the British thought that the war was over and began to talk of returning to England.

Washington's Victory at Trenton. — A part of Howe's army was stationed at Trenton. It was made up of Germans, hired of their prince, the ruler of Hesse-Cassel, for $36 apiece. Washington formed a plan to capture them. He crossed the Delaware eight or nine miles above Trenton on Christmas night. The passage was difficult and dangerous because of the ice, and a part of his troops did not succeed in crossing at all. After they reached the eastern bank the soldiers marched on in the blinding storm. "The snow," writes one, "was tinged here and there with blood from the feet of the men who wore broken shoes." In the early morning Trenton was surrounded, and about one thousand Hessians were taken prisoners. Not an American was killed. It was

a victory which put new courage into the army and raised the hopes of the colonists again.

Princeton. — Washington gave the British another surprise a week later. Alarmed by the capture of the Hessians, Howe ordered General Cornwallis to unite the different bodies of troops. Meanwhile Washington, who had first returned to Philadelphia with his prisoners, had crossed the Delaware again. On



MAP OF NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, AND PENNSYLVANIA

January 2 Cornwallis thought that he had caught Washington with his back to the river, which it was impossible to recross in the presence of a hostile army. Cornwallis exclaimed, "At last we have run down the old fox, and we will bag him in the morning." Instead, Washington, leaving his campfires burning to deceive the British, marched around their lines toward Princeton. At Princeton he put to flight three regiments of British on their way to join Cornwallis, and took many prisoners.

At daybreak Cornwallis faced an empty camp, while the

booming of cannon in the direction of Princeton revealed to him the game that the "old fox" had played. Washington marched to the hills about Morristown, and the British concluded that it was wise to withdraw toward the Hudson. Few events have had a greater influence than the small battles at Trenton and Princeton. No one, in America or Europe, any longer doubted the skill and courage of the commander who could accomplish such wonders with a broken army.

The Campaign of 1777. — General Howe had large plans for 1777. If the government gave him the reinforcements for which he asked, he would have 35,000 soldiers. These would be enough for two important expeditions. One would march toward Boston from Newport, in Rhode Island, which had been seized the fall before. The other would march upon Philadelphia, and, perhaps, after taking that, enter Virginia. But the government could not furnish the troops. The best it could do was to give him 8,000 of the soldiers who had been sent to Canada after the colonists had attacked Quebec. The safest way would have been to transport them by sea, but the government feared that the colonists would take advantage of their absence to make another attack on Canada. It was decided, therefore, that they should attempt to reach New York by the Champlain, Hudson, and Mohawk valleys.

Burgoyne's Expedition. — The expedition from Canada was led by Sir John Burgoyne. He expected General Howe to send a force up the Hudson to meet him, but letters went so slowly in those days that before General Howe learned of the government's final plans he had left New York by sea, and was nearing the head of Chesapeake Bay, from which he intended to march on Philadelphia. He could not now turn back, and so Burgoyne was left to carry out the other plan alone.

Burgoyne set out in June, 1777. He advanced by Lake

Champlain, and easily took Ticonderoga, the frontier fortress of northern New York. All went well until August, when the army began to cross the portage from Lake George to the Hudson River. General Schuyler, who commanded the colonial forces in New York, put the axes and spades of his men to good use. He blocked the roads in every direction with fallen trees; he choked the rivers with earth and trees until they were impassable for boats with supplies; and he drove off the sheep and cattle. All food was destroyed or carted away.

A British army, made up partly of Canadians, loyalists, and Indians, tried to join Burgoyne by way of the Mohawk Valley, but the German settlers drove it back with the help of a force under Benedict Arnold that had been sent by the colonial army. Another force of 1,000 men Burgoyne, in desperate need of supplies, sent to Bennington, Vermont. This army was almost totally destroyed by John Stark's New Hampshire minute-men and their neighbors, the "Green Mountain Boys."

On October 17, 1777, near Saratoga, Burgoyne surrendered, though not until he had made several desperate efforts to fight his way out of the trap. His army, of which 6,000 men remained, half of them Germans, became prisoners. All sorts of supplies also fell into the hands of the colonial troops. The capture of an entire British army filled the colonists with enthusiastic hopes. It encouraged the enemies of Great Britain in Europe. The credit of the victory belonged to General Schuyler, but it was given to General Gates, whom Congress had placed in command before the campaign ended.

Capture of Philadelphia. — Meanwhile General Howe had succeeded in his campaign against Philadelphia. He had begun his march from the head of Chesapeake Bay about the first of September. Washington attempted to check him at

Brandywine Creek, but was badly defeated. Nevertheless, he afterward managed his army so well that it took Howe two weeks to march the last twenty-six miles. Philadelphia was occupied September 26. It was now too late to go to Burgoyne's relief. In 1777 the British took a city and lost an army.

A CONTINENTAL SOLDIER IN 1777

QUESTIONS

1. What did the colonists think in 1775 about separation from England? What things changed their minds by 1776?

2. Who wrote the Declaration of Independence? What did it say? Who opposed independence? Why did they oppose independence? Were there many of them?

3. Why did the colonists have to make over their governments? Why did the people of Connecticut and Rhode Island need to make fewer changes in government?

4. What did the colonists put in their constitutions? Why did they take many powers away from their governors and give them to the legislatures? Why did they fix short terms for their legislators? How else did they guard against overbearing or tyrannical officers? What old-world customs did they keep out?

5. Why was the task of Congress in making a frame of government harder than that of the states? Why did the delegates in Congress give the new government of the "United States" so little power? Why did they not provide for a president?

6. What advantages did the British have in the Revolution? What two advantages were on the side of the colonists?

7. What region did the British seize before the end of 1776 which made up for the loss of Boston in March? Why were the small battles of Trenton and Princeton of great importance to the colonists?

8. What was General Howe's plan for 1777? Why was General Burgoyne sent from Canada to New York? Why was he sent by the Champlain-Hudson route?

9. Why did not General Howe help Burgoyne more? How was Burgoyne captured?

10. What had the British gained during the third year of the war? What had they lost?

EXERCISES

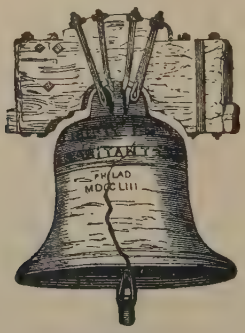
1. Make a list of the arguments that patriot leaders like John Adams and Thomas Paine gave for complete separation from Great Britain, and another list of the arguments that the loyalists used against the step.

2. Find out from one who knows whether the frame of government of the states today resembles that made during the Revolution, and in what way it differs.

3. Make out a list of the gains of each side during the years 1775, 1776, and 1777.

Important Dates:

1776. July 4. The Declaration of Independence.
1776. December 26. The Battle of Trenton.
1777. September 26. Howe enters Philadelphia.
1777. October 17. The surrender of General Burgoyne.



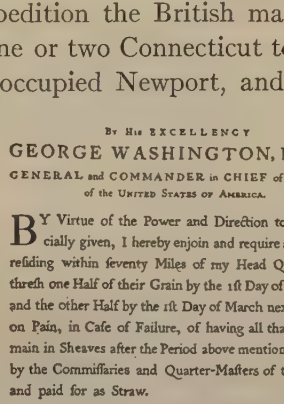
THE LIBERTY BELL
In Independence Hall, Philadelphia

CHAPTER XVIII

LIFE IN WAR TIME

What the War Did Not Do. — The Revolutionary War lasted seven years and yet few regions in the colonies saw an army of either friend or foe. The march to Concord or to Bennington was the longest expedition the British made in New England. They ravaged one or two Connecticut towns, burned Falmouth, Maine, and occupied Newport, and that was all the New Englanders saw of them after Boston was abandoned.

Until 1780 life on the Virginia plantations went on as usual, except that it was harder to market tobacco. The same is true of the colonies farther south. New Jersey and the Hudson River Valley suffered most. Even there the mischief was commonly done by bands of patriots or of loyalists determined to bring destruction upon one another. The presence of the British army did not always mean ruin to a neighborhood, for the officers frequently paid the farmers in gold and silver for the meat, flour, and vegetables which they brought into camp. While General Howe's army was quartered in Philadelphia the farmers of eastern



By His EXCELLENCY

GEORGE WASHINGTON, Esquire,

GENERAL and COMMANDER in CHIEF of the Forces of the United States of America.

BY Virtue of the Power and Direction to Me especially given, I hereby enjoin and require all Perſons reſiding within ſeventy Miles of my Head Quarters to threſh one Half of their Grain by the 1ſt Day of February, and the other Half by the 1ſt Day of March next enſuing, on Pain, in Caſe of Failure, of having all that ſhall remain in Sheaves after the Period above mentioned, ſeized by the Commiſſaries and Quarter-Maſters of the Army, and paid for as Straw.

GIVEN *under my Hand, at Head Quarters, near the Valley Forge, in Philadelphia County, this 20th Day of December*, 1777.

G. WASHINGTON.

By His Excellency's Command,
ROBERT H. HARRISON, Sec'y.

LANCASTER: Printed by JOHN DUNLAP.

WASHINGTON'S ORDERS TO THE FARMERS LIVING NEAR VALLEY FORGE

Pennsylvania had no trouble in selling their produce at good prices.

Army Supplies. — The armies were likely to suffer for food as soon as they moved far from the waterways. The country was thinly settled and little food could be found in any one region. The roads were poor and there were few wagons. In 1778 a cargo of clothing, sorely needed by the colonial soldiers, reached a port in North Carolina, but it was necessary to send to Pennsylvania for wagons. The next year Philadelphia had more flour than it could sell, while Washington's soldiers in eastern New Jersey and on the Hudson were starving. One difficulty was that the officers whom Congress put in charge of supplies did not understand how to manage the matter.

Washington's Headquarters at Valley Forge

Valley Forge. — This partly accounts for the sufferings of Washington's army while Howe occupied Philadelphia. Washington's camp was at Valley Forge, a village twenty-five miles northwest of the city. The soldiers lived in huts such as frontiersmen usually built, but they were in want of blankets, clothing, shoes, and even food. About Christmas Washington wrote to Congress that 2,898 men were unfit for duty because of lack of clothing. Many whose shoes had worn out cut blankets into strips and wound these around their feet. Sometimes the only food they had was dough baked in their fire-places. Washington was surprised that his soldiers did not all abandon him. Indeed 2,300 did desert and joined the British army in Philadelphia, where

they were sure of food. Others went home. At the close of the winter only 5,000 remained.

Paper Money. — One reason why General Howe could obtain plenty of food for his army, while Washington's soldiers were on the verge of starvation, was that the British could pay in gold and silver. Washington was not so fortunate. Congress could not raise enough money by taxation

No. 14326
ONE SIXTH OF A
DOLLAR
According to a Resolution of Congress, passed at Philadelphia, February 17, 1776.
FUGIO
MIND YOUR BUSINESS
¶ONE SIXTH.¶
One Sixth of a Dollar.
WE ARE ONE
Printed by Hall & Sellers, in Philadelphia. 1776.

Face Back

PAPER MONEY OF THE REVOLUTION
Reduced facsimile

and tried to pay expenses with paper money, as the colonies had done many times before. The states also issued paper money. This money sometimes lost a tenth of its value in a single month. Prices as a result rose rapidly. In 1781 a pair of shoes cost $100 in paper money, a bushel of potatoes $24, a bushel of corn $40, and a cow $1,200. It is not surprising that the Pennsylvania farmers were ready to exchange their products for British gold.

Industries during the War. — When the colonies declared themselves independent, it was no longer necessary to obey

the British laws checking the manufacture of hats, cloths, and steel. At the same time the demand for them increased because trade with Europe was either cut off or was carried on with great difficulty. Most people dressed in homespun, as they had done in the earlier time. Makers of guns, saddles, and powder were kept busy. Towns like Springfield, Massachusetts, and Waterbury, Connecticut, became famous for gun making. At the Principio Iron Works in Maryland cannon balls were cast for the Continental army. It was very difficult to obtain enough salt, since the supply from Europe was interrupted. The salt wells near Syracuse, New York, were known, but salt from them was not marketed until several years later. Under the circumstances it was necessary to evaporate sea water. For this purpose tanks were constructed at New Bedford and on Cape Cod.

Commerce. — The war did not put an end to foreign trade. This trade must have been large, for in the first four years of the war the English captured over 500 vessels, most of them near the coast. About 200 were engaged in trade with Europe or the West Indies. American merchants often armed their vessels, receiving from Congress letters authorizing them to capture vessels of the enemy. These armed ships owned by private persons were called privateers. They scoured the seas for English merchant vessels, which they took to Europe for sale. They also carried cargoes. With the money so obtained they bought European goods needed in the states.

The trade with the French and Dutch West Indies was especially lively. The Dutch were glad to exchange saltpeter, from which powder was made, for Virginia tobacco. If the mouth of Chesapeake Bay was too closely watched by British cruisers, the tobacco was hauled in wagons to the North Carolina coast, and shipped from there to the West Indies. In 1781, when the British admiral captured the Dutch

island of St. Eustatia, he found hogsheads of tobacco and casks of rice piled up on the shore by the hundred. Some of this tobacco was owned by British merchants who were making money rapidly in trading with the "rebels." Within four years twenty-four million pounds of Chesapeake tobacco found their way to the English market. From 1779 until the war closed trade with Europe brought to the states nearly all the commodities they needed. Travelers were astonished to see that the colonists were prospering in spite of the war.

Sufferings of the Loyalists. — The Revolution was a civil war for two reasons. In the first place, English colonists were fighting against Englishmen from the mother country. In the second place, the colonists were fighting against one another. Before the war ended nearly 50,000 colonists served on the British side either as militia or as regular soldiers. Some in small bands, especially in South Carolina and Georgia, waged war with their neighbors. Such bands, whether of loyalists or patriots, were more cruel than the regular troops of either side.

In the end the loyalists lost nearly everything they owned. Their lands were seized by the states and commonly used to reward the Continental soldiers. In many regions they were fortunate if they escaped being tarred and feathered.

Exiles in Canada. — Many of the loyalists were driven into exile. They went principally to Nova Scotia or to the western part of the province of Quebec. The British government treated them generously, giving heads of families 500 acres of land and single men 300. They were also given tools with which to work.

Two Other Migrations. — During the war there were two other migrations. One was from the coast towns to the interior of the states. The trade of many coast towns was ruined by the nearness of British ships, cruising off shore on the watch for colonial vessels. A part of their inhabitants

were obliged to find employment elsewhere. Others moved to safer places, taking their industries with them. The result was, as a French traveller remarked, that the colonists gained not only freedom, but a more even spread of their population.

The second migration was more important. It passed over the mountains into the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. Its beginnings go back to the French and Indian War.

MOUNTAIN TRAILS AND THE WESTERN COUNTRY

Hunters and trappers paid little attention to the rule of the British government concerning the great Indian territory west of the Appalachians.[1] Three mountain trails led from the older settlements toward the west. One was Braddock's road to Pittsburgh. Another led to the "blue grass" region of Kentucky through Cumberland Gap, where Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky now meet. The third followed the Holston River or the French Broad into the valley of the Tennessee. The story of the pioneers who crossed the mountains, especially that of Daniel Boone, the greatest of frontier hunters and fighters, is thrilling.

[1] See page 160.

Beginnings of Kentucky. — In 1769 Boone explored the trail through Cumberland Gap into Kentucky, then a part of Virginia. The colonial assembly planned to make it the regular highway into their western lands, but it long remained simply a path. In 1774 James Harrod and thirty companions laid out Harrodsburg on the Kentucky River, and the year following Boone founded Boonesborough near by. Each settler marked off his own farm. The land was plentiful and it made little difference whether he took 400 or 1,000 acres. Most of the early settlers in Kentucky depended upon hunting and trapping to obtain furs, which they sold in the colonies or states.

Cumberland Gap

Tennessee. — The story of early Tennessee was similar. In 1769 a family settled on Watauga Creek in eastern Tennessee. The following year James Robertson, whom the people of Tennessee like to call the "father" of their state, settled in the same region. Many others soon joined the new settlements.

The Revolutionary War instead of delaying the growth of the western settlements, helped them. Many colonists, leaving the regions threatened by war, took their way over the mountains. The great danger came from Indian attacks supported by the British garrison at Detroit or at other posts taken from France in 1763. The Indians did not require much urging, for the settlers were invading their hunting grounds.

Wyoming Massacre. — The Germans and Scotch-Irish of western Pennsylvania and New York suffered the most. One band of Indians fell upon the settlements in the Wyoming Valley, where the Susquehanna River breaks through the mountains of northern Pennsylvania. The Indians drove from the valley those whom they did not kill, burned their homes, and laid waste their fields.

The people of the frontier were obliged to protect themselves. Washington could not spare any of his troops. The struggle was especially fierce in 1777 and 1778. The Indian, like the white man, was fighting for his home. Both used the knife, the tomahawk, and the gun. Their warfare was more cruel than even that of loyalists and patriots near the coast.

George Rogers Clark

The Conqueror of the Northwest. — In 1778 George Rogers Clark, one of the greatest hunters and Indian fighters in Kentucky, formed the plan of driving the British garrisons out of the Northwest; that is, from the region lying between the Ohio River and the Great Lakes. Clark thought it was time to attack the real enemy behind the Indian. He gathered a small force of Indian fighters, mostly mountaineers and hunters, from the western part of Virginia. Governor Patrick Henry of Virginia encouraged him with money and good words.

In May, 1778, Clark's little army of 150 men boarded several flat-boats and rowed or drifted down the Ohio River. Nearly opposite the Tennessee River, Clark landed and led his force northward across the level plains to the old French

villages in Illinois. He reached the first, Kaskaskia, on the Mississippi River, on the evening of July 4, 1778, surprised the unsuspecting garrison, and occupied the town. It proved easy to induce the French to accept American rule, particularly since Clark could tell them, what they had not yet heard, that the French king had recently become the ally of the United States. Some of the adventurous young Frenchmen joined Clark's force. The Indians, who called him the "Big Knife Chief," were overawed by the union of Americans and French and ceased to oppose him.

Clark's greatest exploit was the recapture of Fort Vincennes on the Wabash, which the British commander at Detroit had seized in the preceding winter. The rivers were full and the lowlands flooded. Clark's men while on their march were often obliged to wade in icy water. Sometimes it was up to their chins. He surprised the British garrison and compelled it to surrender. His success not only protected the settlers on the frontier and in Kentucky, but also gave the United States a claim to the Northwest when peace was made. For this reason Clark is called the conqueror of the Northwest.[1]

QUESTIONS

1. Where did the war do great damage? Why did the colonial armies sometimes suffer from want? Why did the British armies fare better?
2. Why did Congress use paper money? Give examples of prices because of its use.
3. What new industries were started during the Revolution?
4. What trade was stopped and what trade was continued or started during the war?
5. Give two reasons why the Revolution may be called a "Civil" war. How many colonists served in the British armies?
6. How were the loyalists treated? What did many of them do?
7. Describe three emigrations that went on during the Revolution. Why did the westward movement go on faster than ever?

[1] The region which Clark had seized was nearly as large as the thirteen colonies. They contained 341,752 square miles, while the Northwest contained 265,878.

8. How did the pioneers in the West live? Why were they in great danger? Who were their leaders? What happened in the Wyoming Valley?

9. What plan did George Rogers Clark form in 1778? What did he accomplish? Why did the French of the Illinois country submit readily and some of them join Clark?

EXERCISES

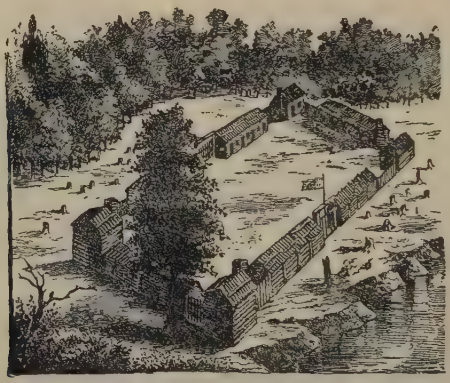
1. On an outline map shade the regions that saw British armies before 1780.

2. Visit any museum having Revolutionary relics and describe the objects used in everyday life of those days.

3. Collect pictures of Revolutionary relics.

4. Locate on the map, page 208, the three roads to the West and the route of George Rogers Clark.

5. What states now form the region won for the United States by Clark?



A Frontier Settlement — Boonesborough

CHAPTER XIX

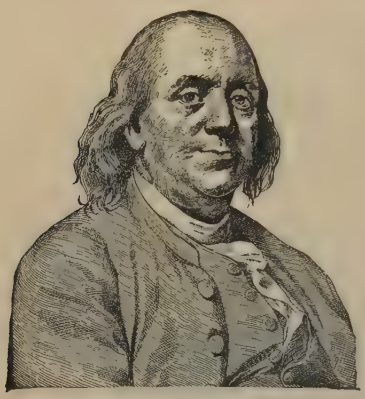
HOW THE FRENCH HELPED THE COLONISTS

Good News from France. — In the winter of 1777–1778 the outlook for the colonial cause seemed dark. Not only was the Continental army at Valley Forge in distress from lack of food and clothing, but a group of officers and members of Congress plotted to get rid of Washington and put Gates in his place. Their plan came to nothing, and with spring news arrived that on February 6 King Louis XVI of France had become the ally of the young republic.

From the beginning of the troubles between England and her colonies the French had looked on with increasing interest. Many Frenchmen were eager for a chance of revenge on account of the losses which their country had suffered in the recent war. Others were interested in the cause of the colonists. They were ready to cheer on men who claimed the right to govern themselves. They admired the Americans also because the colonial farmers and planters appeared to be living more natural lives than Europeans. In America there were no princes or lords. Every man seemed to have an equal opportunity to make the most of himself.

As soon as the war broke out Congress sent agents to the countries of Europe, hoping for aid against Great Britain. Fortunately one of the commissioners to France was Benjamin Franklin. His homely sayings in *Poor Richard's Almanac*, his clever inventions, like the stove, and his discovery, by means of a kite, that lightning is electricity, had already made him famous. He was regarded as a scientist

and a philosopher. His simple manners and dress helped win the love of the French, who were growing weary of wigs and laces and ruffles. Franklin styles, Franklin caps, Franklin snuff-boxes, and Franklin walking-sticks became the craze in Paris. His portraits and busts appeared everywhere, until he declared to his daughter that her "father's face was as well known as the moon."



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
After the portrait by Duplessis, 1783

The French first aided the colonies secretly, giving clothing, powder, and guns for the Continental army to Franklin or the other commissioners. Similar aid was obtained from Spain. Besides, several million dollars were lent to the United States, to be repaid when peace was made. Some influential officials thought the time had now come for an attack upon the ancient enemy of France. Others wished to wait until the colonial troops gained a decisive victory. The news of the capture of Burgoyne and his army put an end to their hesitation, and Louis XVI agreed to a treaty of alliance.

Lafayette and Steuben. — Many young Frenchmen had already come to America on their own account to help the colonists, some in search of adventure or glory, others because, like the Americans, they wanted to fight for "liberty." No other became so famous or gave so much valuable service as the Marquis de Lafayette, a young nobleman of great wealth and influential family. Lafayette was barely twenty years of age in 1777 when he joined Washington's army. He had been educated in a military school and was given a high rank in the Continental army. He generously served

without pay. Washington came to love him as if he were a son. His name is still remembered with affection by Americans.

Another foreigner who was of much assistance was Baron Steuben, a Prussian nobleman. Steuben was an experienced officer, having served long under Frederick the Great, the most famous general of the time. During the dreary winter at Valley Forge Steuben trained the soldiers in the European mode of fighting. Two Polish nobles also fought bravely for the cause — Kosciuszko, who helped win the victory over Burgoyne, and Pulaski, who died fighting at the head of his troops in the attempt to recapture Savannah.

Marquis de Lafayette

Value of the French Alliance. — The French strengthened the colonists on the sea, where they were weakest. Ever since the disasters of the French and Indian War, France had been busy rebuilding her ruined fleet. In 1778 she had nearly as many battle-ships as England. A year later the French persuaded the Spaniards to join them in the war, and then their united fleets were able to dispute the mastery of the seas with the British. From 1778, and especially from 1779, the English were too busy defending their colonies in the West Indies and in the East Indies, and their fortress of Gibraltar at the entrance of the Mediterranean, to give the greatest part of their attention to the war in America.

As soon as the British government knew that war with France was certain, General Clinton, who had taken Howe's place at Philadelphia, was ordered to return to New York and

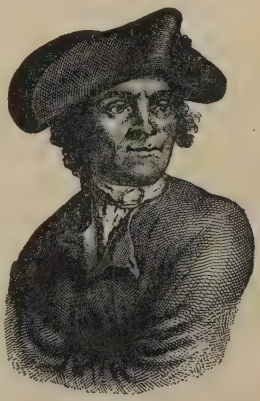
to send 8,000 of his troops to the West Indies to attempt the conquest of the French islands. Washington pursued the British, attacked them at Monmouth, and hastened their retreat. He then encamped at White Plains, near New York. He was not strong enough to attack the city. A French fleet appeared off the coast, but did not attempt to force an entrance to the harbor. It finally sailed for the West Indies after a storm had prevented an attack upon Newport. General Clinton, however, soon withdrew the Newport garrison to New York.

New Enemies of Great Britain. — Before long the British government added to the number of its enemies. British war ships claimed the right to search the merchant ships of other countries in order to see if they were supplying the enemy with powder, guns, or anything else needed in war. In doing this they paid so little attention to the rights of other nations that the Dutch, the Danes, the Prussians, the Swedes, and the Russians prepared to resist by force. With the Dutch the quarrel led to war.

All this was fortunate for Washington and the colonial cause. Congress and the army were in a desperate situation. The paper money was fast losing its value. Another misfortune added to Washington's trials. Benedict Arnold, one of the ablest and bravest of his officers, whom he had trusted as a friend, went over to the British. What made Arnold's treachery still blacker was his attempt to betray the fortifications at West Point, the strongest position on the Hudson. His plans were discovered in time to save West Point, but he escaped to New York. He served under the British flag until the end of the war, ravaging parts of Connecticut and Virginia, and making his name a by-word among his fellow countrymen.

Exploits on the Sea. — The only war ships that the Americans possessed were remodeled merchant vessels. No one of

them was large enough to engage in battle with an English ship-of-the-line. The British fleet soon drove from the sea the few ships that Congress had armed. If the control of the Atlantic Ocean as a base of operations was to be taken from the British, it must be by the French fleets. Nevertheless, captains of American privateers, occasionally of war ships, did great harm to British trade, capturing 320 merchant vessels in 1777 alone.



JOHN PAUL JONES
After the etching by A. Varen

The hero of the greatest exploit of the little colonial navy was John Paul Jones. In 1779 the French king lent Jones a large remodeled merchant vessel, in order that he might attack British merchant ships as they were entering or leaving their home ports. Jones called his ship the *Bon Homme Richard*, in honor of his friend Franklin and Franklin's famous almanac.

In September, 1779, the *Richard* had a terrible fight with the British frigate [1] *Serapis* near the mouth of the Humber River, on the eastern coast of England. The *Serapis* was stronger and swifter. The only chance of victory for Jones was to close with his enemy and lash the two ships together. This he did after the *Bon Homme Richard* was on fire. His men then boarded the *Serapis* and compelled the British to surrender. The *Richard* was now sinking, and Jones transferred his crew and those who had been wounded to the *Serapis*. A few hours later the *Richard* sank, carrying down the brave men who had fallen in the struggle.

War in the South, 1778-1781. — In 1778 Clinton took

[1] A ship-of-the-line is a battle-ship. A frigate was smaller, carrying 28 to 44 guns. The *Serapis* carried 44.

advantage of the absence of the French fleet in the West Indies to shift the war to the southern states. Washington could not send the southern patriots much help. For a time the British had things their own way in Georgia and South Carolina. They took Savannah in 1778, and Charleston in 1780. The revolutionary army in these states was either captured or broken up.

The conquest of the Carolinas was far from complete, as Major Ferguson, commander of the best loyalist regiment in the British service, learned to his cost. Within a few weeks after a Continental army under General Gates had been dispersed at Camden, Ferguson ventured into the mountains. The settlers assembled quickly under the leadership of Sevier and other pioneers, surrounded Ferguson at King's Mountain October 7, 1780, and killed or captured his whole force.

Marion, Pickens, and Sumter. — Other fearless patriots like Francis Marion, Andrew Pickens, and Thomas Sumter kept the flame of revolution burning in the South. They formed small bands of volunteers, who came and went as they wished, and served at their own expense. Their men were wretchedly equipped and clothed, but full of zeal and patriotism. Such a band would lie hidden in the deep forests and mountain valleys until an opportunity came to surprise a party of British foragers or their loyalist allies. Marksmen then stealthily approached the British camps and shot the soldiers as they went about their ordinary pursuits. It was a new kind of warfare and greatly annoyed the British. Cornwallis, who was in command of the British army at the South, wrote home calling Sumter "the greatest plague in the country." "But for Sumter and Marion," he said, "South Carolina would be at peace."

What Greene accomplished. — After the defeat of Gates, Washington sent Nathaniel Greene, his best general, with a

small army to the Carolinas. Although Morgan, one of his officers, promptly broke up a British force at Cowpens and Greene himself checked Cornwallis at Guilford Court House, his army was not strong enough to defeat the British in open battle. But the result of his skilful management was that Cornwallis was obliged to withdraw to the coast to obtain supplies and reinforcements.

CORNWALLIS'S WANDERING CAMPAIGN AT THE SOUTH

Cornwallis in Virginia. — In the spring of 1781 Cornwallis abandoned the half-finished conquest of the Carolinas and marched into Virginia, which he regarded as the center of colonial resistance. If Virginia were subdued, he thought, the king's authority would again be respected. Already a British force was fighting in Virginia against a Continental army under Lafayette. While Cornwallis marched northward, Greene began a campaign which ended in the recovery of the Carolinas and Georgia. British garrisons held only Charleston and Savannah.

The Allies plan to Capture Cornwallis. — Meanwhile a French army of 5,500 soldiers, led by excellent officers and commanded by the Count de Rochambeau, had reached America. In the winter of 1779–1780 Lafayette had visited France and had persuaded the king to send this aid. Washington wished the French army and the French fleet to unite with him in an attack on New York, but Rochambeau thought this too difficult. Cornwallis's appearance in Virginia seemed to offer a better chance of success. Word was

received from the Count de Grasse, commander of a large French fleet in the West Indies, that he would be on the coast of Virginia by September 1, 1781.

Cornwallis had fortified Yorktown, from which he expected to keep open communication by sea with New York. Yorktown would thus serve as a starting point for the conquest of Virginia. Washington and Rochambeau believed that with the help of a fleet Cornwallis could be captured before Clinton could send him aid. Washington left a small force to watch Clinton at New York, and with Rochambeau crossed New Jersey on the way to Virginia. De Grasse kept his promise and by August 29 was on the Virginia coast. A British fleet which sailed from New York was so crippled in battle with the French that it was obliged to return to New York for repairs. Before it had a chance to refit and sail to Virginia again, Washington and Rochambeau had forced Cornwallis to surrender On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis and his army, numbering more than 7,000 men, became prisoners of war.

End of the War. — The surrender of Cornwallis ended the Revolutionary War. When Lord North, the English prime minister, heard the news, he exclaimed, "It is all over! It is all over!" He and the other ministers became anxious to withdraw the garrisons from New York, Charleston, and Savannah, before they, too, should be lost. These soldiers might be needed to defend England against the gathering hosts of European enemies. Before anything could be done Lord North, whose failure to subdue the rebellious colonists had lost him the confidence of parliament, was obliged to resign. Men who disapproved of the plans of dealing with the colonists now became the advisers of George III. They sent word to Franklin in Paris that they were ready to talk about terms of peace.

An Independent Nation. — It was nearly two years before

terms of peace were agreed upon. The interests of France, Spain, and Holland, as well as of the American states, had to be provided for in the final agreements. Fortunately for Great Britain a fleet under Rodney defeated De Grasse in the West Indies in the spring of 1782, after which the French did not demand hard terms of Great Britain.

According to the treaty of peace, signed in Paris in September, 1783, the independence of the United States was recognized by Great Britain. The new nation was also to possess the region from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi River and from the Great Lakes to Florida, although the territory north of the Ohio had been included by the Quebec Act in the province of Quebec. The Americans were to retain the right to fish off the coasts of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland.

A GENERAL PEACE

NEW-YORK, March 25, 1783

LATE last Night, an EXPRESS from New-Jersey, brought the following Account

THAT on Sunday last, the Twenty-Third Instant, a Vessel arrived at Philadelphia, in Thirty-five Days from Cadiz, with *Dispatches* to the *Continental Congress*, informing them, that on Monday the Twentieth Day of January, the PRELIMINARIES to

A GENERAL PEACE,

between *Great-Britain, France, Spain, Holland,* and the *United States of America*, were SIGNED at Paris, by all the Commissioners from those Powers; in consequence of which, Hostilities, by Sea and Land, were to *cease* in Europe, on Wednesday the Twentieth Day of February, and in America, on Thursday the Twentieth Day of March, in the present Year One Thousand Seven Hundred and Eighty-Three.

THIS very *important* Intelligence was last Night announced by the Firing of Cannon, and great Rejoicings at Elizabeth-Town.—Respecting the Particulars of this truly interesting Event no more are yet received, but they are hourly expected.

Published by James Rivington, *Printer to the King's Most Excellent Majesty.*

JULIUS SCHOONMAKER
Cannon.

C. HUNT
Peace Public.

A BROADSIDE ANNOUNCING PEACE
Reduced facsimile

Spain received Florida, which England had possessed for twenty years. France gained little but glory from the war, although she had added more than $300,000,000 to her national debt. But the French rejoiced that they had humbled their ancient enemy. Many of them rejoiced also at the success of their new friends, the Americans. Up to the Revolutionary War the colonists had regarded the French as relentless foes, who with their Indian allies might fall upon the defenceless frontier settlements. Henceforth they were

remembered as a generous nation which had come to their aid when the colonial cause was darkest.

Washington's Services. — Washington did one more great service to his country before he returned to Mount Vernon as a private citizen. Both soldiers and officers in the army were discontented because Congress had left them unpaid. Many men feared that they would refuse to go home now that the war was over, but would remain together and take by force

Mount Vernon

what they could not obtain peacefully from the bankrupt government. It was even whispered about that some of them wished to make Washington a king as their only hope of fair treatment. When Washington heard of this, he was much distressed. He used his influence with the officers and with the members of Congress to such good effect that a just agreement was made. Soldiers and officers went home quietly.

Washington now resigned his commission in the army and returned to Mount Vernon, from which he had been absent more than eight years. He accepted no salary for his services, nor would he take any reward after the war was over, although his plantation had suffered from neglect. His

place was secure in the hearts of his countrymen. With him Franklin, Adams, Jefferson, and many others were gratefully remembered.

QUESTIONS

1. What causes had the colonists for discouragement in the winter of 1777–1778? What news encouraged them?

2. Why did the French join the colonial cause? In what different ways did the French aid the colonies? Why was the coming of Lafayette and Steuben particularly fortunate for Washington?

3. In what way was the French alliance of the greatest value to the colonies? What change did the British make in the conduct of the war because of the alliance?

4. What enemies did England make in the course of the Revolution? Why did the Spaniards and Dutch also go to war with England? How did England's other wars affect the colonial cause?

5. Did the colonies have a navy? What were the privateers doing to help the colonial cause?

6. Tell the story of John Paul Jones's battle with the *Serapis*.

7. Where did Clinton try to carry on the war after 1778? What success did he have? Why did he fail to conquer completely the southern colonies? What did General Greene accomplish?

8. What further aid did France give the colonies in 1780? What plan did Washington and Rochambeau form?

9. Describe the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. Why did the loss of the army of Cornwallis greatly alarm the British ministers? What were they ready to do?

10. Why did it take nearly two years after the battle of Yorktown to arrange the terms of peace?

11. What did Spain and France gain from their war with England?

12. What was Washington's service to his country just before retiring from the Revolutionary army?

EXERCISES

1. Write an account of the help that the French gave the United States during the Revolution.

2. Make a list of the gains besides independence secured by the United States in the treaty of peace.

Important Dates:

1778. French alliance.
1781. October. Capture of Yorktown.
1783. Treaty of Peace.

REVIEW OF THE REVOLUTION

1754–63. The French and Indian War. Frontiersmen seeking the western lands encroached on territory claimed by the French. The French lost not only the lands in dispute, but also their other American colonies.

1763–65. England (1) continued her old policy of interfering with the freedom of the trade of the colonies, enforcing near the close of the French War and afterward laws which had never before been enforced in the colonies, (2) attempted to maintain a regular army in the colonies, and (3) passed laws like the Stamp Act to raise money for the support of the army.

1765–75. The colonists resisted the British policy by refusing to trade with England, by destroying stamps, burning ships sent to enforce the trade laws, and by other means, like throwing the tea overboard.

1768. England punished the colonies by increasing the regular army, and in 1774 by closing the port of Boston and taking away some of Massachusetts's powers of self-government.

1774. The colonists at the Continental Congress united in resisting such acts, formed a general agreement not to trade with England, and prepared for defense if war came.

1775. The battles of Lexington and Concord began the war of the Revolution.

1776. The British evacuated Boston and seized New York City. Congress set forth a Declaration of Independence and the colonies began making permanent state governments.

1777. The colonial forces captured Burgoyne's army, and the British took Philadelphia. During the war the colonies created new industries and spread westward.

1778. George Rogers Clark conquered the Northwest. The French formed an alliance with the colonies.

1779. Spain joined France in the war.

1780. England also went to war with Holland. Clinton carried the American war into the southern colonies.

A French army landed in America, under Count de Rochambeau, to help Washington.

1781. The United Colonies adopted a constitution, the Articles of Confederation. Cornwallis was captured by the combined work of Washington, Rochambeau, and the French fleet.

1783. A treaty of peace was agreed to. Thirteen English colonies finally became both united and independent.

CHAPTER XX

THE DIFFICULTIES OF THE NEW REPUBLIC

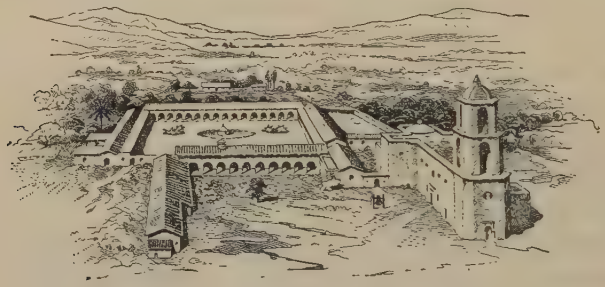
Our Country in 1783. — The United States of 1783 was in area only about one-fourth as large as it is to-day. More than half lay west of the Appalachian Mountains. This part, save for a few settlements, was uninhabited by white men. Even the region east of the mountains was thinly settled. The greater part of the population lived near the coast and in the richer farming valleys. It is impossible to say exactly how many inhabitants the country had, for no census had ever been taken. But probably about 3,250,000 persons lived in the United States, not counting 100,000 or 200,000 Indians. About one-fifth of the people were negro slaves.

OUR COUNTRY IN 1783

Black dots show the settled regions in the United States; circles show the regions of Canada in settlement; crosses show the Spanish settlements; the white shows the unoccupied territory

The present state of Pennsylvania has more than twice as many people as the whole United States had in 1783; New York City has one and one-half times as many. The United States was not only the youngest but also one of the smallest nations in the world. Great Britain, including Ireland, numbered nearly four times as many inhabitants; Spain more than three times; and France eight times.

North American Neighbors. — The neighbors of the United States in North America were few. Small English settlements existed in Nova Scotia. Possibly 60,000 French people lived in the colony of Quebec. About 40,000 loyalists, who fled from the United States during the Revolution, formed the main part of the population in two new British provinces of New Brunswick and Upper Canada.[1] The people of the United States looked upon these people as living in the "frozen north."



Plan of a Spanish Mission Settlement

Spain had five colonies or provinces within what is now the United States. These colonies were Florida and Louisiana on the south and west, some small mission settlements in Texas and New Mexico forming the out-posts of Mexico, and a new colony, California, in the far west. In 1769 a party of Spanish missionaries and soldiers had entered California and established an Indian mission at San Diego. Seven years later they established a mission which was the beginning of San Francisco, the great city of the Golden Gate. Some pushed on into the interior, and established other missions, placing them in fertile valleys where Indian tribes might be reached. The good monk, Junipero Serra, was at the head of the movement. He gloried even in his

[1] In 1791 Canada was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, which were permitted to have provincial assemblies.

sufferings as he tramped across terrible deserts or visited hostile Indians.

The news that a mission had been founded was received in Mexico with rejoicing and the ringing of bells. Proclamations of the government carried the story to the humblest hamlet and even to far-away Spain. The California missions, at first simple places of worship and residence for priests and their helpers, became in a short time thriving colonies. Beautiful buildings were erected, ruins of which may still be seen in many places throughout California. Indians were persuaded to abandon their wandering life and settle on the mission farms, or work in the mission kitchens or workshops. Each mission was an Indian colony with a few Spanish missionaries and army officers.

A California Mission
San Luis Rey

Soldiers stationed near the missions were almost the only other Spaniards. There were, however, two or three towns for ordinary settlers. Los Angeles was begun in 1781. The total Spanish population in California was probably less than a tenth of the Indian population living at the missions. The sturdy peasants and skilled laborers of Spain did not go there any more than they did to Mexico or the West Indies or any other Spanish colony in the New World.

Except along the borders of Florida the settlements of the new republic were separated from those of its neighbors by vast stretches of unoccupied land. The Spaniards advancing into the Southwest and the people of the states moving into the Ohio Valley would not come into conflict for many years. In reality, however, they were entered upon a new race, this time for the possession of the Great West.

To the PUBLIC.

THE FLYING MACHINE, kept by John Mercereau, at the New Blazing-Star-Ferry, near New-York, ſets off from Powles Hook every Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday Mornings, for Philadelphia, and performs the Journey in a Day and a Half, for the Summer Seaſon, till the 1ſt of November; from that Time to go twice a Week till the firſt of May, when they again perform it three Times a Week. When the Stages go only twice a Week, they ſet off Mondays and Thurſdays. The Waggons in Philadelphia ſet out from the Sign of the George, in Second-ſtreet, the ſame Morning. The Paſſengers are deſired to croſs the Ferry the Evening before, as the Stages muſt ſet off early the next Morning. The Price for each Paſſenger is *Twenty Shillings*, Proc. and Goods as uſual. Paſſengers going Part of the Way to pay in Proportion.

As the Proprietor has made ſuch Improvements upon the Machines, one of which is in Imitation of a Coach, he hopes to merit the Favour of the Publick.

JOHN MERCEREAU.

New York Gazette 1771

STAGE-COACH ANNOUNCEMENT

Danger from Disunion. — In 1783 the danger to the people of the states came from their lack of union rather than from the rivalry of foreign settlements. As yet they had little to do with one another. The roads were few, rudely made, without much attempt at grading. The vessels which plied from port to port sailed on no regular schedule. Travelers ordinarily went on horseback or by stage coach.

Several stage-coaches made the journey each week between Boston and New York, New York and Philadelphia, Philadelphia and Baltimore, and a few smaller places. The coach was really a stage-wagon, something like the covered light wagons in common use to-day. It often took three days, starting at three o'clock in the morning and traveling until ten at night, to go from Philadelphia to New York, or six days from New York to Boston. No bridges spanned the large rivers, for the bridge-makers or carpenters of that time had not learned how to build long spans. If a river was

shallow it could be forded; if wide and deep, the coach could be carried across on a ferry boat. Even short journeys were full of excitement, hardship, and danger.

The ordinary man seldom traveled beyond the boundaries of his county. The New Englander only on the rarest occasions traveled south of the Potomac, or the Southerner to the North. Dress, social customs, and even uses of words and phrases varied in different states. Besides, the Dutch in New York, the Germans in Pennsylvania, and the French in Detroit and the Illinois country still kept the language and ways of their fathers in the Old World.

Post-Rider of the Olden Times

Why the People knew so Little of One Another. — The newspapers were more enterprising than they had been before the war, but they were not distributed through the post-offices, and were therefore hard to obtain. The post-offices handled only letters. Post-riders carried the little mail there was in saddle-bags attached to the saddles. A pair of saddle-bags was enough to carry the mail on any trip between New York and Philadelphia or Boston and New York.

People living in small towns seldom received mail oftener than once a week. It was harder and much more expensive to send a letter to many a backwoods or frontier town than it is to-day to send it into the interior of China. The post-riders usually left the mail at the town inns.

Would the Republic endure? — Many persons wondered how long a republic, the parts of which were so loosely con-

nected with one another, would hold together. It was really thirteen republics, for the Continental Congress had little power, and this Congress was the only central authority. A shrewd Frenchman called the United States "a giant without bones." He probably meant that the republic had no king or nobles to manage its affairs. English people thought that the Americans would repent of their separation and return to their allegiance to George III.

Many Americans still thought independence a mistake. They believed that it meant thirteen small, jealous, quarreling republics, helpless before the first enemy who should attack them. Some talked about dividing the United States into three groups, one made up of the New England states, another of the middle states from New York to Maryland, and a third of the southern states. A few wished to have a king, and when Washington spurned the idea that he should become king, they suggested a son of George III or of a brother of Frederick the Great. The majority, however, had faith in their experiment with a republican form of government and a union of all the states.

What Congress accomplished. — The Congress of the Confederation accomplished some things of great value, in spite of the fact that it possessed little authority. With the aid of Washington it carried the war to a successful ending. Its agents made an advantageous peace with Great Britain. When the war, which had furnished the strongest reasons for union, was over, Congress kept the states together until they became accustomed to united action. What in 1781 seemed merely a "league of friendship" began to grow into a deep and lasting union for the common good.

A New System of Money. — Even after the close of the war seven states issued paper money. Like the earlier issues most of this was never redeemed in coin. Paper money was the cause of many disputes about the payment of debts.

Still there was another difficulty. The people used foreign silver and gold coins in ordinary trade, for Congress coined no money. These foreign coins — crowns, doubloons, guineas, johanneses, moidores, pistoles, shillings, and Spanish dollars — often varied in value. Many were counterfeited or had their edges clipped. Washington said it would soon be necessary to carry about scales in order to weigh such coins.

Copper Cent Coined in 1783

Although Congress was unable to remedy these evils, it provided a system of money in which all coins could be given a place or value. The system might be used in planning for new coins when a mint was established. It was called the decimal system because the cent, the second measure of value, was ten times the mill, which was the first; while the dime was ten times the cent; and the dollar was ten times the dime.

The Northwest Territory. — Congress invented a way of managing its western lands which helped to unite the states. George Rogers Clark had conquered the lands northwest of the Ohio in 1778. The United States had been allowed to retain these in the treaty of peace with Great Britain. But several old states, Virginia, New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, laid claim to the region. Maryland refused to join in any union if the others were to keep great tracts of western lands. Finally the states that claimed western lands gave up most of them.[1] These lands became the common territory of all, the first territory of the United States.

[1] Connecticut kept back or reserved a tract 120 miles long, lying west of Pennsylvania and south of Lake Erie, called the Western Reserve. In time Connecticut gave part of this land to its citizens who had suffered from British raids during the Revolution and sold part to a land company, using the money for the benefit of public schools. Virginia also retained, besides the Kentucky

Surveying Lands in the "Northwest." — In 1785 Congress adopted a plan of surveying the western lands. Land in the old colonies had been loosely and carelessly surveyed. The frontier settlers often made their own boundaries by tomahawk marks on the trees. This led to innumerable disputes between farmers. It left the lines between farms crooked and made many strange-shaped pieces of land which nobody wanted. The new way was to survey the western territory into squares six miles on a side, called townships, and to divide these into smaller squares called sections, one mile on a side. These were again divided into smaller squares called "quarters," 160 acres in extent. In this plan four quarters formed a section, and thirty-six sections a township. Each section and township was numbered so that any piece of land could be readily located. The land was to be sold at $1 an acre.[1] Congress promised the settlers to give the sixteenth section in every township for the support of public schools.

The Ordinance of 1787. — In 1787, Congress provided a way of governing the Northwest Territory. Many Revolutionary soldiers wished to locate within it the lands which Congress had promised them. Several officers belonged to the Ohio Company, which was formed to buy land of Congress and sell it to settlers. Both wished a stable government in the territory, capable of protecting the property of the settlers and of deciding disputes between them. Such a government was provided by a law called the Ordinance of 1787. Congress was to appoint a governor and judges to rule until the territory numbered 5,000 inhabitants. The territory was then to have an assembly of its own. As soon as any part of the territory had 60,000 people or more, it was

region, some lands north of the Ohio River, sometimes called the Virginia Military Reserve, for its citizens who had served as soldiers in the Revolution.

[1] In 1796 the price was raised to $2.

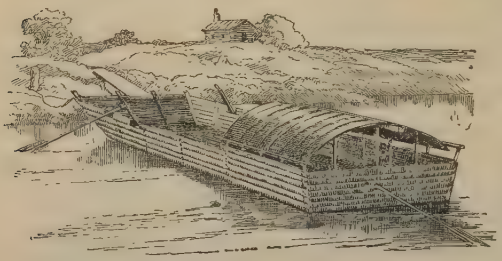
to become a state equal in all respects to the older states. The new state would also become a part of the union. Congress promised that the inhabitants should always have freedom of religion, right of trial by jury, and free republican state governments. It also declared that no laborers should be held as slaves. By the survey act of 1785 and the Ordinance of 1787 Congress adopted the policy of encouraging free laborers, promising them cheap land and political equality.

The Settlement at the "Point" at Marietta in 1790

Beginnings of Ohio. — The Ohio Company immediately took advantage of the new plan. It purchased from Congress several hundred thousand acres in the southeastern part of the present state of Ohio. In the spring of 1788 General Rufus Putnam and a band of New Englanders reached the spot where the Muskingum River flows into the Ohio River. By the middle of summer many acres of growing corn, several log huts, and a block-house marked the progress of the new settlement. Out of gratitude to the French for aid during the war, the settlers named the village Marietta, a shortened form of Marie Antoinette, Queen of France. Another company purchased lands farther down the Ohio, including the site of Cincinnati.

Emigration to the West. — The settlements south of the Ohio River, in the present state of Kentucky, were growing

rapidly. Twelve thousand persons entered the region in a single year. Louisville soon became a thriving village. Emigrants to the Ohio country, whether north or south of the river, crossed the mountains in covered wagons, sleeping in these at night and cooking their food by the roadside. The route led to Pittsburgh, if they were from New England or the middle states, and to Wheeling, if from Maryland or Virginia. At the bank of the Ohio they obtained flatboats, large enough to carry wagons, livestock, and household stuff. The current of the river carried them on at the rate of four or five miles an hour. When the place was reached to which the settlers were going, they used the planks of the boat for buildings.



An Emigrant's Flatboat

Distress in the States. — One reason why so many people moved to the Ohio country was the distress in the states. A sudden change from war to peace is often as ruinous to business as a change from peace to war. Industries which profited by the war lost the market for their goods. Channels of trade which the war opened were closed. Even rich men could not obtain money enough to pay their ordinary debts. In 1788 Washington had to put off the tax collector because a man who owed him could not pay. Common debtors came to look upon judges as their enemies, since it was the decisions of judges which compelled them to pay or go to jail. In certain Massachusetts towns mobs hindered meetings of the courts. Finally the discontented, including many debtors from the western part of the state, assembled under the leadership of Captain Daniel Shays and attempted

to capture the arsenal at Springfield. The rioters were soon dispersed. The Rhode Island legislature tried to help debtors by issuing great quantities of paper money and compelling creditors to accept the worthless bills. It also threatened storekeepers with loss of political rights if they did not sell their goods at low prices fixed in paper money.

Trade after the War. — The merchants and ship owners, who had been growing rich on the trade with France and Spain during the later years of the war, were distressed to discover that at its close they could no longer trade with the French or Spanish West Indies. The British West Indies were also closed, because the Americans were now foreigners. The French in the commercial treaty of 1778 had promised the Americans only as good treatment as that granted to any other foreigners. While the war lasted the French government gave special privileges to American ships in order to injure the English, but withdrew these privileges in 1783. Fortunately for the American merchants the French planters cried out that they were the ones principally hurt, for they could no longer get cheap food for their plantation hands. By 1785, therefore, the French government reopened the trade in a few products. The English planters obtained similar privileges of trade with the United States, so that by 1786 the West Indian trade was again on the road to prosperity.

The stopping of the West Indian trade for two or three years made it hard for the American merchants to pay for what they bought in Europe and especially in England. They had few products except tobacco and rice which they could offer in exchange. The English government added to the difficulty by insisting that ships could bring no goods except those of the state where the ship was owned. A New Englander, therefore, could not carry South Carolina rice or Virginia tobacco to England. The aim, of course, was to give this business to English ships.

Congress and Trade. — Another difficulty grew out of the fact that Congress did not have the right to make rules of trade for all the states. Each state had its own set of laws and levied such taxes as it pleased on articles which its merchants bought. States sometimes tried to take vengeance on England because the English government treated American merchants badly. States also taxed articles brought in from other states. New Jersey was so angry at the taxes New York levied on articles sent to New York that the state tried to levy a tax of £30 a month on a little land at Sandy Hook which the New Yorkers had bought for a light-house.

The Mississippi Question. — Still greater dangers arose over the navigation of the Mississippi. The lower part of the river for 200 miles flowed through Spanish territory. The Americans, like the English from 1763 to the Revolutionary War, claimed the right to sail down the Mississippi and out into the Gulf of Mexico without interference from the Spaniards. But the Spaniards disputed the claim. They wanted to check the growth of the western settlements. One way to accomplish this was by cutting off the only outlet for trade. They therefore offered valuable privileges of trade with Spain and the Spanish West Indies, if the United States would give up the claim to the use of the lower Mississippi. Some men in Congress were ready to obtain trade privileges at this price. When the settlers in Kentucky and on the Tennessee heard of it, they threatened to secede if it were done.

Need of a Stronger Union. — It had already become clear that the states needed a stronger government if they were to deal successfully with foreign nations. By 1787 even so friendly a government as France thought the republic was falling to pieces. The British would not withdraw their garrisons from the northern frontier posts.[1]

[1] British garrisons still held Detroit, Mackinac, Erie, Niagara, and Oswego, though these posts now belonged to the United States.

Congress was unable to collect money enough to pay the ordinary expenses of the government. It was obliged to ask the states to send money for such purposes. In 1782 and 1783 Congress asked for $10,000,000, but received less than $1,500,000. Delaware, Georgia, and North Carolina paid nothing, while New Hampshire paid $3,000 instead of $450,000.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the United States in 1783. What neighbors had it?

2. Why did the Spanish colonies grow slowly? Who made up the inhabitants of these?

3. Upon what new race were the English and Spanish people starting as rivals? Why was the outcome of the race a long way off?

4. Why was there danger that the new republic would break up? Why did the people of the United States know so little of one another?

5. What did Congress accomplish? What kind of money was used? Describe the system of money adopted.

6. What arrangement did Congress and the states make regarding the western land claims? What plan did Congress adopt for the survey of these lands? What plan for the government of the Northwest Territory?

7. What western settlements were formed? How did the emigrants reach the western colonies? Why did people leave the old settlements for the West?

8. How did the coming of peace after the Revolution affect the trade of the colonies? How did the people finally secure a profitable foreign trade?

9. Why was a stronger union needed?

EXERCISES

1. On an outline map of the present United States show the parts (1) which were already inhabited in 1783, (2) those which belonged to the United States, but were vacant, and (3) those held by foreign colonies.

2. Make two lists, one of the good things that the Congress of the Confederation accomplished between 1781 and 1789, and another of the things that it should have done but could not for want of power.

3. Describe the present English money system. Would it have been better if the United States had kept the money system of the mother country?

4. Review the story of the Virginia Company's colony at Jamestown and compare it with that of the Ohio Company's colony at Marietta.

Important Date:

1787. The adoption of the Northwest Ordinance.

CHAPTER XXI

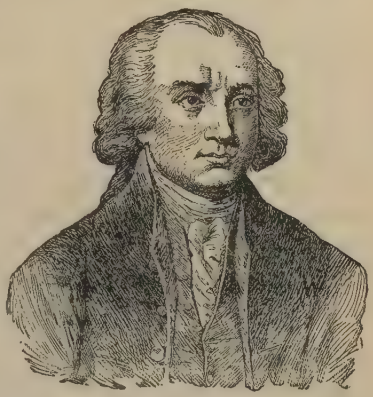
STARTING THE NEW GOVERNMENT

The Philadelphia Convention. — Disputes about trade, especially in Chesapeake Bay and along the Potomac River, finally convinced thoughtful men that a government strong enough to regulate all such matters was necessary. Attempts to settle by conference questions of trade between neighboring states like Virginia and Maryland came to nothing. A convention of delegates from all the states was then called. It met in Philadelphia in May, 1787.

James Madison, one of the youngest men at the convention, had carefully prepared himself beforehand to take a leading part in its work. He had so much to do with making the new government that he is often called the "Father of the Constitution." Many other notable men attended the Philadelphia convention. Among them were George Washington of Virginia, Benjamin Franklin and James Wilson of Pennsylvania, and Alexander Hamilton of New York. Some great leaders of the day were occupied with other work and could not take part in the convention. John Jay had charge of foreign affairs and chose to stay at his post. John Adams was minister of the United States to England, Thomas Jefferson to France. Several well-known men, like Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry, were opposed to such a change in the government, and were not in the convention.

Washington was chosen president of the convention. The leaders made no attempt to patch the weak spots in the government of the Confederation. From the beginning they were

resolved to propose to the people a form of government altogether new. One obstacle to success was the fact that no two of the thirteen states were of the same size, and yet each believed itself as important as any of the rest. The small states were afraid to be yoked with the large states, for fear the latter would outvote and oppress them. A thousand imaginary dangers troubled the minds of the timid. At one time the Delaware delegates threatened to leave the convention. A majority of the New York delegates did leave in disgust at the decisions which the convention made.



James Madison

A New Constitution. — The frame of government which the delegates completed, after working from May until well into September, differed widely from that which the states had accepted in the Articles of Confederation. In the first place, an official called a President was placed at the head of the administration of affairs. Secondly, the legislature, or Congress, was divided into a Senate and a House of Representatives. In the third place, a Supreme Court was provided. The powers granted to each of these branches of the government showed that the leaders of the convention wanted to guard against hasty decisions. For this reason they made the assent of two bodies necessary in drawing up laws. They also gave the President the right to veto acts of Congress, which could not then become laws unless both Houses passed them again by a majority of two-thirds. Furthermore, they wished to protect the people against the possibility that in times of excitement both President and

Congress might adopt measures which would deprive a part of the people of their rights, especially of their rights of property. They had in mind such laws as had been passed in Rhode Island about paper money. This fear led the convention to give to a Supreme Court the power to guard these rights by declaring unconstitutional acts of Congress which violated them.

An equally great change was made in the powers of the central government. To it were granted not only the right to levy taxes enough to pay its expenses, but to regulate, without interference from the state legislatures, such matters as trade. Moreover, the states were forbidden to issue paper money.

The delegates thought it better to give the choice of a President to a selected body of men, called an Electoral College, rather than provide that the President should be chosen directly by the people. They also decided that senators should be chosen by the legislatures of the states. Members of the House of Representatives were the only officers to be chosen directly by the people.

The Compromises of the Constitution. — It was very difficult to come to an agreement about the manner of making up the two Houses of Congress. Men from the larger states like Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, thought that their states should have more representatives than small states. But the small states did not wish to be ruled by their larger neighbors. A New Jersey delegate said that he would not submit the welfare of his state with five votes to a Congress in which Virginia had sixteen. Wilson of Pennsylvania just as emphatically called it absurd to give New Jersey with a population of 175,000 as many votes as Pennsylvania, which had more than twice as many people, or Delaware with less than 60,000 as many as Virginia, which had a population ten times as great. Nearly five weeks passed before they settled the question.

Franklin showed them a way out. "When," he said, "a broad table is to be made, and the edges of the planks do not fit, the artist takes a little from both, and makes a good joint. In like manner here both sides must part with some of their demands." According to the plan finally adopted each state, large or small, should have two senators, while its number of representatives depended upon the size of its population. Massachusetts, for example, was granted eight members in the House of Representatives, Virginia ten, Delaware one, and Maryland six.

CONGRESS HALL, PHILADELPHIA
National Capitol in 1790–1800

Many similar bargains were made in the course of the debates. There was, as one writer says, a "whole bundle" of compromises agreed to while making the Constitution. Franklin wanted to have a Congress of one House and to fix the term of President at seven years, denying him a second term. These proposals and many others were voted down.

The States accept the Work of the Convention. — The people of the states accepted the work of the convention, though not without weeks of discussion and opposition. Most of the small states thought the Constitution favorable to their interests. Delaware, New Jersey, and Georgia rati-

fied it with enthusiasm. Ratification came only after a long, hard fight in Massachusetts, Virginia, and New York. Rhode Island and North Carolina at first refused to join the other states. Eleven states accepted the new Constitution, and went to work "to form a more perfect union." [1]

George Washington, First President, 1789-97. — The Congress of the Confederation appointed March 4, 1789, for beginning the new government, and New York as the temporary capital. Electors, chosen in five [2] of the states by the legislatures, and in the others by the people, voted unanimously for Washington as the first President. They chose John Adams as Vice-President. It was long after March 4 before Congress was organized and Washington was officially notified of his election. On April 30 he took the oath of office and read his inaugural address to the two Houses of Congress assembled in Federal Hall. It was a day of great rejoicing. In the morning crowds attended services in the churches to pray for the welfare of the new government and the safety of the President. Bonfires and illuminations at night ended the celebration.

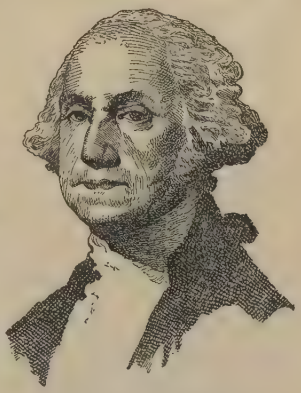
Washington's Helpers. — Washington's first task was to select his advisers. Congress provided for a Secretary of State to conduct foreign correspondence, a Secretary of the Treasury to manage money matters, and a Secretary of War to direct the army of only 600 men. The offices of Attorney-General to advise the President on matters of law and Postmaster-General to care for the small postal business of the country were created. Neither of these was looked upon as an important department like the other three. Washington appointed Thomas Jefferson Secretary of State, Alexander

[1] The provision in the Constitution that it should go into effect as soon as nine states agreed to it was revolutionary, because according to the Articles of Confederation any change in the government required the consent of all the states.

[2] Rhode Island, North Carolina, and New York did not choose electors.

Hamilton Secretary of the Treasury, and Henry Knox Secretary of War. John Jay was made Chief-Justice of the new Supreme Court.

Formation of the Cabinet. — Each secretary had his own work to do. In England such officers together formed a "Cabinet" or special body of advisers to the king, recommending measures of government and conducting discussions in parliament. The American Constitution said nothing about a Cabinet. Washington early adopted a part of the English practice and asked the heads of departments to meet together and to advise with him upon important matters. The custom of holding Cabinet meetings with the President has been continued by Washington's successors. In this way, without a provision in the law or the Constitution, the President's Cabinet came into existence.[1]



GEORGE WASHINGTON
After the portrait by Stuart

Providing Money for National Affairs. — The most important matter at the outset was providing money to pay the national debt and the ordinary expenses of government. It had been necessary to borrow money in Holland to pay the interest on the French loans. Adams had also been obliged to borrow money there to start the new government. Congress began raising money almost at once by taxing articles imported into the United States from other countries. Such taxes, called tariffs or import duties, remained the chief source of income for the federal government. Duties were

[1] Four men made up Washington's Cabinet — the three secretaries — State, Treasury, and War — and the Attorney-General.

raised or lowered as more or less money was needed. From the first, manufacturers urged Congress to lay import duties on articles which were also made in the United States. This would give the American makers an advantage or "protection," as it was called. The duties in the first tariff act were low, that is, only slightly protective.

The National and State Debts. — Alexander Hamilton, as Secretary of the Treasury, was called upon to prepare a plan for paying off the great war debt. He proposed that Congress should pay not only the money borrowed by the government from the French, the Dutch, and from American citizens, but even that borrowed by the states in their own defense. This meant that the United States would pay about $75,000,000, a huge sum for those days.

There was not much difference of opinion about paying back the money which the United States had borrowed, but many objected to paying the debts of the states. Some states like Virginia had already paid a part of their debt. They objected to a plan by which their citizens would have to aid other states. Besides, some men preferred that the states, rather than the United States, should receive the credit which would come from honorable payment of the Revolutionary debts.

Another Compromise. — It happened that Congress had to select a place for a permanent capital. The members of Congress from the southern states wanted this to be located on the Potomac. The members from Pennsylvania wanted it at Philadelphia. Other members of Congress did not care where the capital should be located, but were anxious to carry through Hamilton's plan of paying the state debts. Hamilton and Jefferson, representing different sides, struck a bargain. Hamilton agreed to persuade several northern Congressmen to vote to locate the capital for ten years at Philadelphia and then permanently on the Potomac River; Jefferson, in turn,

promised to find several southern members to support Hamilton's plan about state debts. The bargain was carried out.

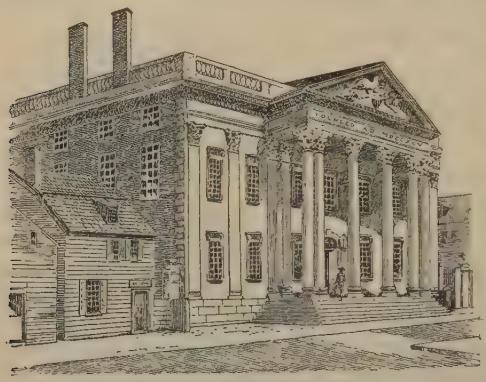
Internal Revenue Taxes. — Hamilton persuaded Congress to tax whiskey manufactured in the United States. This was called an internal revenue or excise tax. The government needed the money, and Hamilton thought it well to accustom the people to the idea of taxes collected in different parts of the country. He believed that a government, like a man, grows strong by exercising every power.

Alexander Hamilton

The levy of this tax soon gave the government an opportunity to show whether it was strong. Many persons in western Pennsylvania owned small distilleries and made whiskey out of their surplus rye, corn, and wheat. When the Spaniards closed the Mississippi, the western settlers could no longer send their grain to market by water. It could be sent across the mountains only at great expense unless distilled into whiskey. They were angry at the law placing a tax on their chief product and drove away the collectors. When the governor of Pennsylvania would not put down the disorder, Washington sent to the seat of trouble an army made up of militia from the neighboring states. The "Whiskey Rebellion" ended without actual fighting, and resistance to the collectors ceased.

A Mint and a National Bank. — By Hamilton's advice a mint was established, and the coinage of silver and gold begun. His plan to create a Bank of the United States met with more opposition. England had had such a bank for a

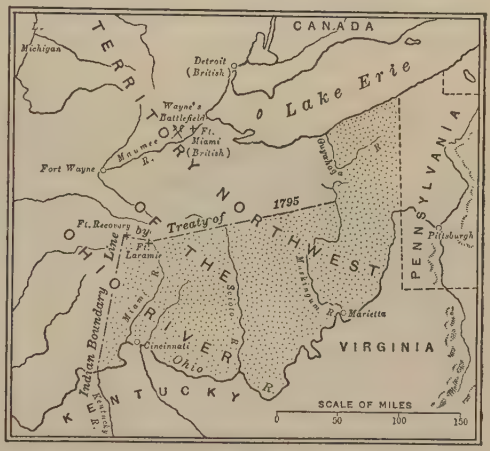
century. It had been of great use in several ways, but chiefly in helping the government when it needed to borrow large amounts of money. In Holland the Bank of Amsterdam had been equally useful. When Hamilton proposed a similar bank for the United States, many opposed the scheme for fear that it would be so powerful that it would control all business. Congress, however, finally authorized the Bank, to do business for twenty years, and subscribed one-fifth of the money that was required for its organization.



THE BANK OF THE UNITED STATES, PHILADELPHIA

Rival Leaders in Washington's Cabinet. — In carrying out Hamilton's plans Congress made use of powers not given to it expressly in the Constitution. Hamilton argued that Congress should provide for the general welfare of the country. Jefferson opposed Hamilton's plans in the Cabinet meetings and outside. Washington sympathized rather more with Hamilton, but preferred not to take sides with either. The fact was that the two great leaders held very different views of government. Hamilton was bent on securing a strong government which could maintain order at all times. He distrusted the ability of the masses of the people to take an intelligent part in government, and accordingly believed that the government should be carried on by men of property and education. Jefferson, on the other hand, sincerely believing that all men are equal, was determined that the few

should not rule the many. He thought that all the people would in the end prove wiser than any part of them, however well-meaning and intelligent. Under the influence of Jefferson and Hamilton the citizens of the new republic were soon grouped in two political parties. Hamilton's followers were commonly called Federalists, because of their belief in a strong federal or national government. The Jeffersonians were called Democrats or Republicans because of their faith in the people. The Democrats naturally looked to the states rather than the United States as the governments which must be relied upon. They were sure that Hamilton aimed at changing the government into a monarchy, and even went so far as to attack Washington bitterly for leaning toward Hamilton's ideas on government.



THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY AFTER WAYNE'S VICTORY

The part given up by the Indians is shaded; that kept by the Indians is white

The New Government and the Ohio Country. — The advantages of a strong government, such as Washington and his advisers were organizing, soon became apparent in another way. Hardly had Marietta been founded before a new Indian war broke out, in which the governor of the Northwest Territory was badly defeated. The new government raised another and better army and supplied it with necessary war supplies. Washington gave the command to Gen-

eral Anthony Wayne, whom his soldiers liked to call "Mad Anthony" for his bravery, but whom the Indians called the "chief that never sleeps" for his ceaseless energy. Wayne defeated the Indians decisively and compelled them to give up nearly all of what is now the state of Ohio. After this it was not so dangerous to emigrate to the West, and the number of settlers increased rapidly.

Exterior Interior

A Pioneer Home in Kentucky

By 1800 four hundred thousand people lived west of the mountains. So many lived in Kentucky that in 1792 it was admitted to the union of states on the same terms as the original thirteen. Four years later, in 1796, Tennessee was made the sixteenth state.[1] Ohio was added in 1803, and the remainder of the Northwest Territory was soon divided into Indiana, Michigan, and Illinois Territories.

QUESTIONS

1. What disputes finally convinced men that a stronger government was needed? Who were the leaders in calling the convention at Philadelphia?

2. What great obstacle was there to the success of the convention? How long did the delegates work in framing the new government?

3. What three branches of government did the new Constitution provide? Why did the leaders arrange the powers of these branches as they did? What new powers, not possessed by Congress under the Articles of Confederation, were now given to the central government?

[1] Vermont, the fourteenth state, had been admitted in 1791.

4. Why did the delegates not give the choice of President and senators to the people directly? What officials did they allow the people to choose? What compromise was made in order to adjust the chief difference between the large and small states?

5. How many states accepted the work of the convention? What states refused at first to accept?

6. When was the new government organized? Who became the President and Vice-President? Whom did Washington choose as his advisers? Where did Washington get the idea of a Cabinet?

7. How did Congress, under the advice of Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, provide for the expenses of government? Why did Hamilton wish the United States to pay the state debts as well as the general debts? Why did many citizens oppose this part of his plan? What compromise was adopted in Congress to settle the difference of opinion over state debts and the capital?

8. Why did Hamilton want Congress to create a Bank of the United States? Where had the plan worked well? What objections were made? Was Hamilton successful in this part of his scheme for the organization of the new government?

9. What views did Hamilton and Jefferson hold regarding government? What party names did their followers take?

10. In what way was the new and stronger government beneficial to the western settlers? What new states were added to the Union?

EXERCISES

1. Review in Chapter XX the reasons for abandoning the Articles of Confederation for an entirely new frame of government.

2. Make a table showing the area and population of the thirteen states and group them as large and small states with regard to population. (See Appendix, page x.)

3. Are senators and the President still elected in the manner originally provided in the Constitution?

4. What heads of departments now form the President's Cabinet?

Important Dates:

1787. The Constitutional Convention meets in Philadelphia.

1789. The new Constitution goes into effect, and Washington becomes President.

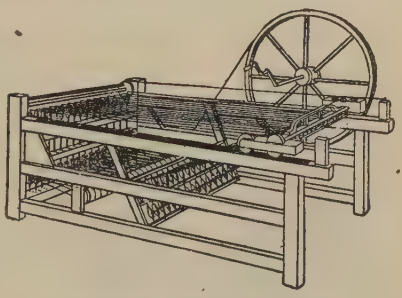
CHAPTER XXII

THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE

Two New Revolutions. — While the people of the United States were busy completing the new framework of government, two revolutions on the other side of the Atlantic began to influence them deeply. The first, in England, called the Industrial Revolution, introduced new and quicker ways of making cloth, iron, steel, and many other things. The Americans naturally were eager to learn the new methods in order to succeed in manufacturing. The second revolution was in France, and seemed to be a struggle for the kind of liberty and equality which the Americans already enjoyed. It therefore appealed strongly to their sympathies. But when it led to a terrible war, in which France was arrayed against England and Europe, American sympathies were divided. This was especially true after the French as well as the English began to interfere with American trade.

Spinning and Weaving. — The first change made in England was in the method of preparing cotton or woolen yarn and of weaving it into cloth. The story is told that James Hargreaves, an English weaver, entered his house one day so suddenly that his wife, startled, upset her spinning-wheel. Hargreaves noticed that the wheel kept on turning as it lay on the floor, and he wondered why he could not construct a wheel in such a manner that it would turn several spindles and spin several threads at once. He succeeded in making a machine which could spin eight threads, and named it a "spinning jenny" in honor of his wife. This was in 1764.

Hargreaves did not keep his secret long, and soon other machines were made, spinning 20 and 30 threads. The most successful maker of spinning machines was Richard Arkwright, who after 1769 made and sold great numbers of them. The good points of both kinds of machines were soon combined in a "mule spinner," which was in common use by the close of the Revolutionary War.



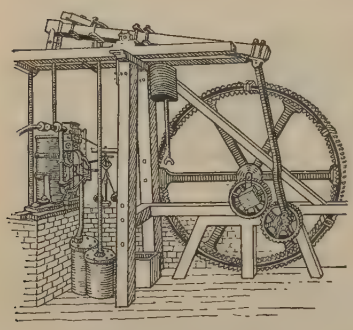
HARGREAVES'S SPINNING JENNY

Before these spinning machines were invented, weavers often were unable to obtain yarn enough to supply their looms. Now yarn was spun much faster than it was needed. The balance was restored by the power-loom, another great invention. A clergyman, Edmund Cartwright, invented a machine, which was run by power, for weaving the yarn into cloth. This soon began to displace the hand-looms. The power was furnished at first by horses or water-wheels.

The Steam-Engine. — About the same time James Watt invented the steam-engine. Men had dreamed for ages of using the steam which escaped from a boiling kettle for driving machinery. Hero, a Greek inventor of Alexandria in Egypt, more than one hundred years before Christ, attached bent pipes to a boiler so that escaping steam caused the pipes to revolve in the same way as lawn sprinklers turn by the flow of water. Watt showed how to introduce the steam first at one end of a cylinder and then at the other, so as to drive a piston back and forth. His engine was able to furnish more power than a very large number of horses, and could be used where water-wheels could not be set up, and could take the place of the water-wheels when the rivers

were low. Watt began to manufacture his engines in 1781. Eight years later Cartwright, who had been using an ox to drive his power-loom, adopted one of Watt's engines. The introduction of the steam-engine made it necessary for spinning and weaving to be carried on in places where coal for fuel was easily obtained.

Factories. — These inventions led to the building of mills or factories. Hitherto spinning and weaving had been household industries. Women had often done the spinning in their leisure time. In some country districts whole families had spent the long winter evenings spinning yarn to sell to some weaver or to use in the family loom. The ordinary family or skilled weaver did not have money enough to buy the new machines, nor a house large enough to hold them. Therefore, men with money built the factories, bought the machines, and paid spinners and weavers to run them. Many weavers still lived at home and tried to make cloth in the old way. But the cost of making cloth with the new machinery was so small that weavers with hand-looms found it hard to earn a living. Angry at the loss of their business, they sometimes rushed into the factories and broke the new machines. The change in the place of making cloth from the household to the factory is usually described as a change from the "domestic" to the "factory" system.



Watt's Steam-Engine

Coal, Iron, and Steel. — Two changes in the manner of making iron and steel were equally important. The older furnaces had used charcoal, and as the supply of charcoal began to give out, the English makers of iron and steel imple-

ments imported pig iron from the American colonies or from northern Europe. In 1760 an Englishman made a blast-furnace in which coal could be used, and thirty years later manufacturers began to use steam-engines to cause the blast. The result was a growth in the production of iron and steel as rapid as the growth in the production of cloth had been. This drew many workmen from the villages to the towns, especially in the coal regions where the new furnaces were constructed.

The Americans and the New Inventions. — Americans did not wait for the new machine methods of making cloth to be fully improved before they began to use them. The English government realized the advantage that the inventions gave to English manufacturers and merchants, and forbade either the machines or plans of them to be sent out of the country. Parliament even tried to prevent the emigration of those who knew how to work with the new inventions. The Americans, however, found ways of obtaining the needed information and constructed the machines themselves.

A spinning jenny was at work in Philadelphia in the year the Revolutionary War broke out, eleven years after Hargreaves had invented it. Three years after the close of the war a mill for spinning cotton yarn was built at Beverly, Massachusetts. Bounties or rewards were offered for the introduction of English machinery. Samuel Slater, a workman in one of Arkwright's mills, heard of the bounty and emigrated to America. In order to avoid the heavy penalties for carrying away models or plans of such machinery, he was obliged to store his memory with a knowledge of every part of the machine. At Pawtucket, Rhode Island, in 1789, he succeeded in furnishing a mill with the new spinning machinery. A French traveler was surprised to find that Arkwright's spinning machines were not only well known, but made in the United States.

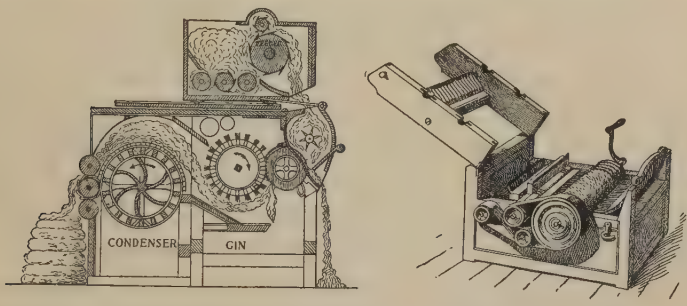
At Slater's mill, as in England, women and even boys and girls were employed. In a short time the machinery was so improved that one worker could tend 300 spindles and do as much as 300 girls with the old spinning wheels. Others were slow to imitate Slater, for in the next fifteen years only four mills were built. Most of the spinning and all of the weaving in the United States was still done at home on the spinning-wheels and hand-looms.

Whitney's Cotton-Gin. — The new way of making cotton yarn greatly increased the demand for raw cotton. People in Georgia began to raise more. In 1786 the Georgians introduced "sea-island" or long-fiber cotton, which hitherto had been brought from South America or the West Indies. Short-fiber cotton was raised on the uplands in the interior. From 1789 to 1791 the production doubled. The great obstacle to success in the cotton trade was the difficulty with which the seed was separated from the fiber. A slave could clean only five or six pounds a day. Eli Whitney, a graduate of Yale College, who became a teacher in Georgia, resolved to construct a machine which could do this work faster. He succeeded in inventing a cotton-gin, which drew the fibers through wires by means of cylinders covered with teeth. The new machine run by horse-power could clean 300 pounds of cotton a day. The production of cotton which amounted to 2,000,000 pounds in 1791, was 48,000,000 pounds ten years later.

Cotton and Slavery. — Another consequence of the growing importance of cotton raising was a change of feeling in regard to slavery. Soon after the Revolution, Pennsylvania and New Jersey, as well as the states farther north, began to free their slaves and to forbid slavery within their borders. They found such a system of labor unprofitable where farming could not be carried on by the methods of the plantation. Several of the southern states were already planning similar

action. But the invention of the cotton-gin and the demand of the factories for cotton stopped all talk of this in the cotton-growing states.

The French Revolution. — All these changes were important, but they went on so quietly that few men understood how great the industrial revolution was. Most men's atten-



Improved model Whitney's model

COTTON-GINS

tion was attracted by another kind of revolution going on in France. Ever since the American Revolution Frenchmen had eagerly asked one another how they too might have more liberty. One of their great writers declared, "Man is born free, and is everywhere in chains." Those who believed this were eager to break the chains and make men free again. Louis XVI, the French king, was well-meaning, but he did not have energy enough to make the laws fair and just to all.

The great trouble in France was that the rich and the nobles had managed to lay the heaviest burdens upon the shoulders of the farmers. Three-quarters of the people were peasant farmers, but that was no reason why they should pay nine-tenths of the taxes. The poorer townspeople were not much better off. The refusal of the upper classes to bear their share of the burdens left the government without income enough to pay its expenses and its debts. The aid given to the United States had added about $300,000,000 to the

French national debt. When the government could do nothing to prevent bankruptcy a States-General or National Assembly was called together to prepare ways of avoiding such a calamity. This body met in May, 1789, five days after Washington was inaugurated. Lafayette was one of the members. He and other leaders of the assembly resolved that France also should have a constitution which would protect the rights of the people and which would distribute the burdens of the country more equally.

Civil War in France. — Many of the nobles, especially the courtiers, were angry to see their privileges destroyed. Other men thought that the National Assembly made many changes which were wrong. Within two years France was divided into two parties, one for and the other against the Revolution. Its supporters called themselves patriots, like the leaders of the Revolution in America in 1775. They hated their opponents just as the American patriots hated the Tories or loyalists.

In 1792 civil war broke out in France, and soon afterward Louis XVI was dethroned and executed as an enemy of the Revolution. By this time the earlier leaders, like Lafayette, had lost their influence. Lafayette had even been driven into exile. Quarrels with Austria and Prussia had also led to war. The execution of the king added England, Holland, and Spain to the list of enemies. France seemed arrayed against all the governments of Europe.

The United States and France. — Many Americans, among them prominent Federalists, now concluded that France had gone too far. Others, especially the followers of Jefferson, still believed that the French were fighting in the cause of liberty. In consequence the French Revolution increased party strife in the United States.

As soon as war broke out between France and England, the

French expected the Americans to take their side, out of gratitude for the help given ten years before. The treaty of 1778 also pledged the Americans to defend the French West Indies. It seemed doubtful to Washington whether the Americans should be dragged into a war which the French had brought upon themselves. He decided to hold aloof and to act in a manner friendly toward all.

In April, 1793, Genet, a new French minister, landed in the United States and tried to induce American privateersmen to help France destroy English merchant vessels on the coast. Many Americans were glad to see blows struck at England, and criticized Washington severely when he put a stop to Genet's attempts to draw the country into the war with England. Fortunately the French government soon sent over another minister.

Disputes about Trade. — The war raised other more serious difficulties. The ships of England and France were obliged to charge higher prices for carrying freight, because they were in constant danger of loss by capture. This gave a great advantage to the ship-owners of a neutral nation, like the United States, who could still charge the ordinary rates. Neither England nor France was willing to see American merchants take away a large part of their trade on the sea. "If our trade is lost," they argued, "where shall we get money to pay taxes, and without taxes we cannot support armies and navies, and may as well confess ourselves beaten."

Of course neutrals were not allowed to carry either to England or France things like powder which could be used in warfare. Why should not the trade in wheat also be stopped, for soldiers must have bread as well as powder? So the English thought, and they captured American ships loaded with wheat bound for France or the French colonies. England also objected when the American shipmasters attempted

to carry sugar and coffee from the French West Indies to Europe.[1]

The people of the United States were almost ready for war with Great Britain on account of such quarrels over trade. Their anger was increased when British naval officers seized Englishmen on board American vessels and compelled them to serve in the navy. By Englishmen these officers meant any one born in England, whether he had been naturalized in the United States or not. They held the old notion that, "Once an Englishman always an Englishman." Often they seized American-born sailors, claiming that they were English.

JOHN JAY

The Jay Treaty. — To save the country from war Washington sent Chief-Justice Jay to England to settle all disputes between the two countries, including those which remained after the treaty of peace in 1783. Jay was only partly successful. The English agreed to withdraw their garrisons from the northern frontier posts. They would make no promises about impressment, and the arrangement they offered concerning the trade with the West Indies was so ruinous to American trade that it was

[1] The French were giving the American ships unusual privileges of trade with the West Indies, because their own ships were liable to capture, and the merchants in France desired to obtain the coffee and sugar raised in the colonies. The English, however, declared that the Americans could not take advantage of the French offers, because they were due wholly to the war, and were simply methods by which the French sought to save their planters as well as many of their merchants from ruin. The Americans had traded with the French West Indies before war began and, therefore, the English had no right to stop all such trade. England later paid damages for seizing during the quarrel several hundred American ships trading in the West Indies.

finally omitted from the treaty. All Washington's influence was required to persuade the Senate to ratify the treaty, even with that article left out.

The Mississippi Question. — In 1795 a satisfactory treaty was signed with Spain, making it possible for western settlers to float their products down the Mississippi and store them in a "place of deposit" at New Orleans, so that they might be loaded there upon sea-going ships.

The French and Jay's Treaty. — When the French heard of Jay's treaty they were angry and declared the alliance of 1778 at an end. They also threatened to treat American vessels trading with Great Britain and her colonies exactly as the United States permitted the British to treat American vessels trading with France and her colonies. The partisans of France were very bitter toward Washington. The merchants were relieved when the danger of war with England was gone, but the great mass of the people outside the coast towns ardently supported the French and hated the English.

Change of Administration in the United States. — By 1797 Washington had served two terms as President. He decided not to permit his name to go before the electors again. In his farewell address he urged his fellow countrymen "to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world." He now retired to Mount Vernon, where he died two years later.

In the electoral college there was a lively struggle over his successor. The quarrel over Jay's treaty still excited the Jeffersonians and the Federalists. John Adams, Vice-President since 1789, was the Federalist candidate, while the Republicans desired Jefferson. Adams won by three votes, and Jefferson became Vice-President.[1]

[1] The Constitution originally provided that the candidate receiving next to the highest number of votes in the electoral college should be Vice-President.

Troubles with France. — Adams had been in office only a few months when the country was on the point of declaring war against the French. The government of France was now bankrupt. Its ordinary expenses were paid by money which victorious generals like Napoleon Bonaparte sent to Paris from conquered lands. When Adams sent commissioners to France to settle the difficulties growing out of the European war, the officials not only demanded a loan of millions for the government, but they asked for $250,000 for their own pockets. The commissioners replied that they should not have a sixpence. The news of this insulting treatment filled most Americans with indignation, although some Republicans thought insults the proper way of treating the Adams administration.

In dealing with the situation Adams and his supporters in Congress made serious blunders. They wisely provided for the construction of several war ships which were authorized to attack French ships. But they also passed an act empowering the President to expel foreigners in time of war, meaning Frenchmen, and another act punishing as a crime criticisms of the government and its officials. These two measures, the Alien and Sedition Acts, were denounced by the Republicans as attempts to set up a tyrannical government in the United States. The legislatures of Virginia and of Kentucky declared them contrary to the Constitution, the Kentucky legislature going so far as to declare them null and void in "Resolutions" written by Jefferson. Before the controversy ended, the Federalists, the party of a strong central government, became unpopular. There was little chance that Adams would be re-elected for another term.

A Treaty with France. — Fortunately for America, the French government was changed in 1799 and Napoleon Bonaparte, as First Consul, became its head. He saw no object in prolonging the quarrel with the Americans, and

signed a treaty ending the difficulties. The quarrel had interfered little with the trade of American merchants in the West Indies. They were busy carrying West India coffee and sugar to Europe. To comply with the English rules they must first bring the cargoes to the United States, unload them, and pay import duties as if they were to be sold in the United States. The cargoes could then be put on the same ships, the duties paid back, and the ships could sail for European ports without risk of capture. Before the war between England and France the United States exported to Europe only about one million pounds of sugar and two million pounds of coffee each year. Within four years the amount of sugar had risen to 35,000,000 pounds and of coffee to 62,000,000 pounds. It seemed, therefore, that the misfortunes of France were as profitable to American merchants as English inventions to American manufacturers. Another ten years showed that the losses in such trade might be greater than the gains.

QUESTIONS

1. What two revolutions in Europe deeply influenced the United States? Which impressed the American people the more? Why was the industrial revolution very important?

2. What new inventions changed the method of manufacturing in England? How did these machines affect the work of the house? Why did the hand weavers lose their work?

3. What two changes took place in iron and steel manufacture? Where were the iron workers obliged to go?

4. Which one of the new inventions was quickly introduced into the United States? Who tended the spindles in Slater's mill?

5. What invention helped the South to produce enough cotton for the new factories in England and the United States? How did the demand for cotton influence the migration westward? What effect had it on the talk of freeing the slaves?

6. How did the American Revolution affect Frenchmen? What were the chief causes of the Revolution in France? Why did some oppose the changes in France? What larger war resulted from the French Revolution?

7. What did Americans think of the French war? Why did some want to help France? Why did Washington and his advisers decide not to help France?

8. What did Genet attempt to do? What advantage did American shipmasters have in trade over the English and French? How did the English try to deprive them of this advantage? Under what conditions did England allow them to carry French sugar and coffee to Europe?

9. What other trouble did the United States have with Great Britain? How much did Jay's treaty obtain in the way of concessions from England?

10. How was the Mississippi question finally settled?

11. What did the French do when they heard of Jay's treaty with England? What did France do which brought the United States and France to the verge of a great war? How did President Adams and the Federalists in dealing with the French trouble make a great many opponents and so bring on their defeat in the next election?

12. Why were the wars of France and the inventions of England both profitable for many Americans?

EXERCISES

1. Describe the method of making cloth before the industrial revolution. If possible first visit a museum where the hand machines formerly used may be seen.

2. If possible visit a cotton or woolen mill and learn about the various stages in making cloth today.

3. Tell the story of the invention of Hargreaves's spinning jenny.

4. Tell the story of how Samuel Slater introduced the spinning machinery into the United States.

5. Tell the story of Eli Whitney's cotton-gin.

6. Review in Chapter XX the way in which American merchants had secured a profitable trade in the West Indies in 1785 and 1786. What trouble had they over this trade during the war between England and France?

7. Review in Chapter XX the early history of the Mississippi question. Who were naturally greatly pleased by the final settlement?

Important Events:

1789. Samuel Slater sets up a spinning mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island. The French Revolution begins.

1793. Eli Whitney invents the cotton-gin.

CHAPTER XXIII

RULE OF JEFFERSON: A NEW WEST

Jefferson elected President. — The Federalists had guided the country safely past the dangers of war with Great Britain and France, but their rule had become unpopular. They stood for strong government and high taxes. Although Adams expelled no Frenchman under the Alien Act, the power it gave him offered his opponents the chance to call him a tyrant. Moreover, he had permitted several Republican journalists to be prosecuted under the Sedition Act. The Republicans for years had been accusing him of being at heart a monarchist.

In 1800 the new election took place. Now that Washington was dead, the Federalists quarreled among themselves. Hamilton criticized Adams publicly, but could not prevent his nomination. The Republicans nominated Jefferson, who was very popular except in New England and among the merchants of the coast towns. Jefferson was victorious, obtaining 73 electoral votes, while Adams received 65.[1]

The New Capital. — One of the last acts of the Federalists was to move the seat of government from Philadelphia to Washington, the new capital on the Potomac. The city was located in a tract of land ten miles square, called the District of Columbia, which had been given to the United

[1] Jefferson and his Republican "running-mate," Aaron Burr, received the same number of votes, and the House of Representatives chose Jefferson President and Burr Vice-President. An amendment was adopted in 1804 which required the electors to vote separately for President and Vice-President.

States by Virginia and Maryland.[1] It was laid out on a spacious plan, its wide streets, large parks, and gardens taking up more than half the ground. Little had been done by 1800. A row of dreary boarding-houses, a partly finished capitol building for Congress, a President's house — these were all. The streets were ungraded, and ran through vast patches of scrubby oak, wild ravines, and marshy river flats.

The White House in 1800

Many made fun of it as a city of magnificent distances, or the seat of the President's "palace in the woods." It seemed a dreary place to the members of Congress accustomed to the gay life of Philadelphia.

The New President. — The new President was more interesting than the new capital. In appearance he was tall, of a reddish complexion, freckled, awkward, and shy in manner. An English traveler said that he looked like a "large-boned farmer." Although a great landowner and planter in Virginia, he was a man of simple habits. He disliked the ceremonial with which Washington had surrounded the duties of the President. Instead of proceeding to the capitol building for his inauguration in a coach drawn

[1] In 1846 Congress returned Virginia's part, south of the Potomac, because it was not needed.

by six cream-colored horses, as Adams had done, he walked across the square from his boarding-house accompanied by a few friends and escorted by the militia.

When Jefferson wrote in the Declaration of Independence "that all men are born equal," he meant every word. Like the early leaders of the French Revolution, many of whom were his friends, he thought men, especially the "plain people," were inclined to do right and could be trusted. He believed that the people should be left to govern themselves in their towns, counties, and states with as little interference from the central government as possible. He would have every man vote who earned a living, instead of limiting the privilege to property holders, as in most of the older states.

THOMAS JEFFERSON

Jefferson was already famous. He had been governor of Virginia and minister to France after Franklin's return. In Virginia he had not only carried through laws dividing a father's estate equally among all the children, but he had also brought it about that every one should be free to attend and support the church he preferred or none at all. In other words, he established religious freedom in Virginia. It was his ambition to organize a complete system of education, beginning with the elementary school and ending with a university. He also wished to free children born of negro slaves, and thus gradually bring slavery in Virginia to an end. He said he wanted "equal and exact justice for all men" and "peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations."

It is no wonder that many thought his election a great event, the promise of better things for all people.

An Economical Administration. — As soon as Jefferson became President, he worked to lessen the expenses of the government. The army was reduced from 4,000 to 2,500 men. This could be done because the danger of war was over for the time. The same reason made possible economies in the navy, which Jefferson believed "caused more dangers than it prevented." In his management of the finances he had the assistance of Albert Gallatin, an able Secretary of the Treasury, who in his youth had emigrated to America from Switzerland. Within eight years a third of the public debt was paid.

Purchase of Louisiana. — Jefferson, however, was ready to spend money for a great purpose. In 1803 he had an unexpected opportunity to purchase the vast territory of Louisiana, stretching from the Gulf of Mexico into the far northwest to the Rocky Mountains. It came about in this way. One of the ambitions of Napoleon Bonaparte, the First Consul of France, was to reëstablish the French colonial empire destroyed by England in the Seven Years' War. In 1798, two years before he became First Consul, he had been sent to Egypt, which the French thought would be a good half-way station to India. Although he conquered Egypt, he was obliged to abandon it because his fleet was beaten by an English fleet under Lord Nelson, and he could get no further help from home. In 1802 France and England made peace, and General Bonaparte resolved to recover part of the territory that the French had once held in the Mississippi Valley. He had already compelled the Spaniards to promise to turn over Louisiana to France as soon as he should be ready to occupy it.

Just here trouble came. Bonaparte thought that he should first recover Santo Domingo, a rich colony in the West Indies

in which the slaves had risen in an insurrection and chosen a negro general, Toussaint L'Ouverture, as their ruler. Bonaparte's officers seized Toussaint L'Ouverture, but other leaders took his place and kept up the struggle. Soon yellow fever broke out in the French army and the soldiers died by thousands. When Bonaparte heard the news, he realized

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

the difficulties of his enterprise. He was also on the verge of another war with Great Britain. He was therefore ready to get rid of Louisiana.

Spain's agreement to cede Louisiana to France had been kept a secret, but Jefferson suspected it soon after he became President. Possession of this colony by Spain, which was growing weaker year by year, had no terrors for the Americans, but possession by France, under such a leader as Bonaparte, was another affair. The western settlers feared for their river trade, which already formed more than a fourth of the commerce of the United States. Their alarm was changed to a certainty of impending ruin when, in 1802, the Spanish

intendant or governor at New Orleans refused to allow Americans to deposit their goods in New Orleans. Western farmers had no wish to leave their products to decay in their sheds and fields. They talked of war, and the militia of frontier towns began to drill so as to be ready in case war should come.

Jefferson, like Washington, had always been greatly interested in the prosperity of the West, but he did not wish to go to war with France. He thought that the best way was to buy New Orleans outright. When the American minister offered to buy New Orleans he was asked, "What will you give for the whole of Louisiana?" Napoleon needed money for the war with England which seemed certain. Besides, he was shrewd enough to know that England's superior navy would enable her to take Louisiana anyway and preferred to sell what he could not hope to keep.

A price, $15,000,000, was easily fixed, and the bargain completed. It was a strange transaction. Napoleon had no right to sell Louisiana without the consent of Spain and his own assembly in France. Spain vainly protested that the sale of Louisiana to America was illegal.[1] Many Frenchmen also were bitterly disappointed. For a second time they were obliged to abandon the attempt to create a New France in North America.

Did the President have Power to purchase Louisiana? — In America there were quarrels over the purchase of Louisiana. Even the President doubted at first whether the Constitution gave him power to acquire any territory. He had in times past denounced Washington and Adams and the whole Federalist party for using powers which were not expressly given to them in the Constitution. And now he and his own party were doing the same thing in annexing Loui-

[1] An agent of France on November 30, 1803, received Louisiana from the Spanish governor, and 17 days later turned it over to the United States.

siana. But Jefferson concluded that the welfare of the country was more important than his earlier notions about the powers of the government.

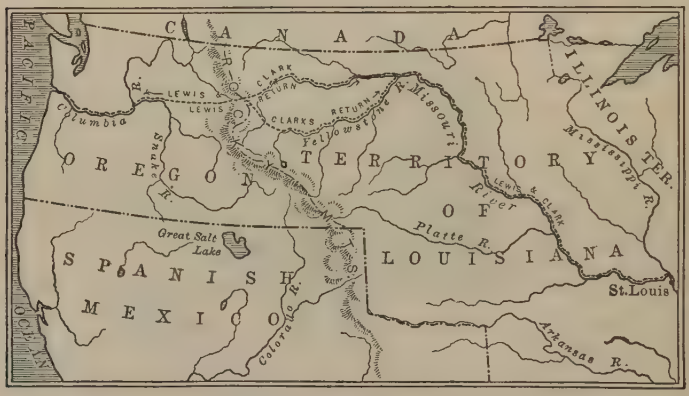
How little was known of Louisiana. — Many thought that the price Jefferson paid for the new territory, which was at the rate of three cents an acre, was too high. They believed much of the land to be worthless. Even the President had an idea that the part east of the Mississippi was mostly barren sands and sunken marshes. This he wanted only because it contained the mouths of rivers like the Mississippi and the Mobile. As for the rest of Louisiana, that was purchased somewhat as boys trade jack-knives, "sight unseen." The greater part was the hunting ground of scattered, roving Indian bands. No white man knew anything definite about its size, its boundaries, or its resources.

THE OLD CABILDO OF NEW ORLEANS

In this the official transfer of Louisiana by France to the United States took place

The Louisiana Purchase doubled the size of the United States and extended it into the very heart of the continent. This single territory formed an area larger than Great Britain, France, Spain, Germany, and Italy taken together. Thirteen states and parts of states have been formed from it and admitted into the Union.

In 1803 the white settlers were clustered along the river near the mouth of the Mississippi. New Orleans was the chief town. The rivers were the highways, boats the carriers, and so for convenience the plantations usually fronted on the rivers, as in early Virginia and the Carolinas. Most of the people were French or the negro slaves of French masters. Two or three small French villages, including St. Louis, were located far up the Mississippi River, but the



LEWIS AND CLARK'S ROUTE

settlers were chiefly the trappers and Indian traders who always hung on the frontier of French settlements in America. A few emigrants from the United States had already pushed into this foreign colony. Daniel Boone, finding neighbors too numerous in Kentucky, was trapping and farming on the Missouri River, near its mouth. The upper courses of the Arkansas, the Missouri, and the Mississippi were wholly unknown. Traders and trappers told strange tales of these regions — that Indians of gigantic stature inhabited the interior; that the soil was too rich to grow trees; that a thousand miles up the Missouri existed a vast mountain "of solid rock-salt, without any trees or even shrubs on it," measuring 180 miles in length and 45 in width.

Lewis and Clark's Expedition, 1804-06. — In 1804 Jefferson sent Meriwether Lewis, his private secretary, and William Clark, a younger brother of George Rogers Clark, to explore the new territory, find a path through the mountains to the Pacific, and learn what they could of the country and its Indian tribes. Two score and five frontiersmen made up the expedition. They rowed, or with favorable winds sailed, the boats slowly up the Missouri, camping at night. They supplied themselves with food from the wild game which abounded in the region — geese, antelope, deer, bear, elk, and enormous herds of buffalo.

GATES OF THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

So called by Lewis and Clark, who passed them July 19, 1805. The Missouri River is here confined by a spur of the Big Belt Mountains

The party wintered among friendly Indians near where Bismarck, the capital of North Dakota, now stands, and with small canoes pushed on up the shallower waters of the Upper Missouri. An Indian squaw, called the Bird Woman, who had been kidnapped from a mountain tribe, accompanied them from their winter camp and won for them the friendship of her kindred in the mountains. The explorers followed the course of the Missouri across North Dakota and Montana until the river separated into three branches. These were named the Jefferson, the Madison, and the Gallatin. The expedition pushed on up the Jefferson branch until this was

no longer navigable. Then they left their canoes and bought horses from the Indians, who showed them a path through the mountains. After a time they could not find game and had to kill some of their horses for food. When they reached a large river that flowed westward, they made canoes and floated down to the Columbia. They followed the Columbia until it broadened into a bay studded with low islands, and until the roar of breakers showed them that they had reached the Pacific.

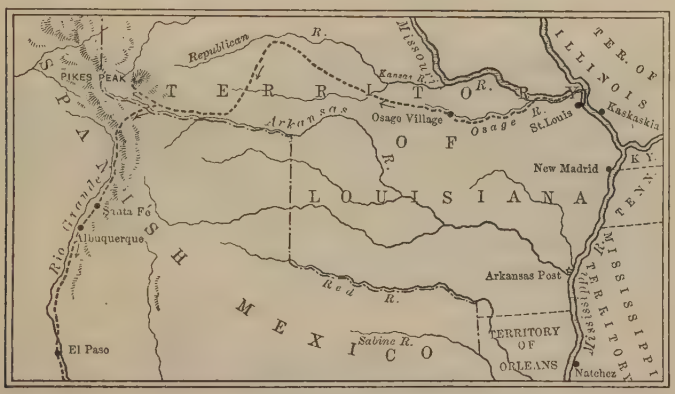
They were now 2,100 miles from St. Louis. They built log-huts and spent a second winter in the western wilderness surrounded by Indians. The return was easier, and they reached St. Louis on September 23, 1806. It was an expedition worthy to rank with that of De Soto and Coronado. One man had died and only one Indian had been killed.

Zebulon Pike. — At the same time Zebulon Pike was sent to explore other portions of Louisiana Territory. In 1805, with a few companions, he followed the Mississippi River nearly to its source. In 1806 he undertook the harder task of visiting the Indians and exploring the country along the eastern border of the Rocky Mountains. He followed the Missouri and then the Osage River, and zigzagged across the plains of Kansas, touching once the boundary of what is now Nebraska and at another time that of Oklahoma. Pike thought that the Arkansas River valley must be a paradise for the wandering savages because of the abundance of game — buffalo, elk, and deer.

Part of the way he was close to the path that Coronado had taken from New Mexico into central Kansas 265 years earlier. He met few Indians. In exploring the mountain front, looking for a pass, Pike found and described the Royal Gorge of the Arkansas River and the beautiful mountain peak which bears his name. The expedition suffered intensely when winter came on. At one time the members

BRITISH AMERICA
CANADA
Claimed by the United States by discovery 1792
Columbia and Exploration 1805 - 1806
TERRITORY OF LOUISIANA
Purchased from France in 1803
Territory claimed by United States as part of Louisiana Territory
SPANISH
MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
1810-1812
L. WINIPEG
LAKE OF THE WOODS
L. NIPIGON
L. SUPERIOR
QUEBEC
MONTREAL
INDIANA TY.
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
DETROIT
ONTARIO
OSWEGO
BUFFALO
ALBANY
NEW YORK
MASS.
PORTLAND
BOSTON
LAKE ERIE
CLEVELAND
FT. DEARBORN
FT. MIAMI
FT. WAYNE
OHIO
PENNSYLVANIA
PITTSBURG
PHILADELPHIA
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
WASHINGTON
COLUMBUS
CINCINNATI
FRANKFORT
KASKASKIA
ST. LOUIS
VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY
RICHMOND
CHESAPEAKE B.
NORFOLK
NASHVILLE
TENNESSEE
NORTH CAROLINA
RALEIGH
SOUTH CAROLINA
COLUMBIA
WILMINGTON
AUGUSTA
GEORGIA
CHARLESTON
SAVANNAH
MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY
VICKSBURG
MOBILE
TERRITORY OF ORLEANS
CEDED BY U.S. 1812
NEW ORLEANS
SPANISH FLORIDA
ST. AUGUSTINE
BAHAMA ISLANDS
SAN FRANCISCO
SAN DIEGO
SANTA FE
GREAT SALT L.
Missouri R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Rio Grande
Colorado R.
Mississippi R.
ILLINOIS TERRITORY
INDIANA TER.
Longitude West 97 from Greenwich
J. PETERS & SON ENGRS., BOSTON

were four days without food, tramping knee-deep through snow, and loaded down with some seventy pounds of baggage apiece. The famished men finally found a herd of buffaloes. Pike wandered around in the mountains of southern Colorado until he crossed the frontier into the territory of Spain. The Spanish authorities, taking him to be a spy, seized him and carried him to Santa Fé in New Mexico. He was later



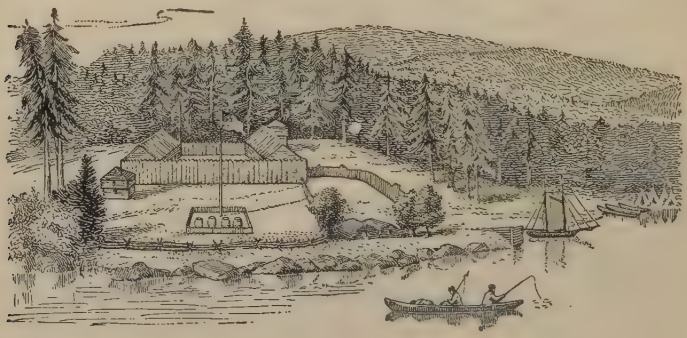
PIKE'S ROUTE

taken to El Paso, but was released and found his way back to the United States in 1807.

Results of Exploration in the Far West. — The description of Louisiana by these pathfinders prepared the way for its settlement later. At the time the American people had enough land east of the Mississippi. Even President Jefferson thought that the new country would be most useful if kept as a reservation for the Indians, who were barring the progress of settlement in the older territories. Indian trade and trapping for furs were the only chances for immediate profit from the vast region.

Oregon. — Lewis and Clark had pushed far beyond the boundaries of Louisiana and laid the basis for a claim upon the Oregon country. This meant all that territory included

in the present states of Idaho, Washington, and Oregon. Captain Gray, an American commander, had long before, in 1792, sailed along the Pacific coast. In 1811 John Jacob Astor established a trading post, named Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia River. All these expeditions gave the United States a claim on Oregon and thus an opening for the United States to the Pacific. Unfortunately British



ASTORIA IN 1811
The fur traders' post of the Oregon country

fur traders claimed the same region for England, and in 1812 drove Astor's men from Astoria.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the Federalists defeated in the election of 1800? Who was elected President?

2. What change was made in the location of the United States capital? How did the national government secure the District of Columbia? Describe Washington in 1800.

3. Why was Jefferson popular with the "plain people"? What were his ideas of government? What had he accomplished in Virginia? What did he do to lessen the expenses of the government?

4. What was Napoleon's New World project? How did he attempt to carry this out? Why was he obliged to abandon it? Why was he ready in 1803 to get rid of Louisiana?

5. Why were Americans alarmed over the cession of Louisiana from Spain to France? How did Spain further alarm them in 1802?

6. Describe the purchase of Louisiana. What did Jefferson try to pur-

chase? What did he actually secure? Why was this a strange thing for Napoleon and Jefferson to do?

7. What did Americans think of Louisiana? Describe the settlements which had been made there.

8. Whom did Jefferson send to explore Louisiana? Describe the journeys of these famous explorers.

9. How did Jefferson think the United States could best use the new territory? Why was he anxious to move the Indians westward?

10. What country besides Louisiana did Lewis and Clark explore? What claims had the United States on Oregon? What other nation now also claimed Oregon?

SCENE ON THE COLUMBIA RIVER
Showing Mount Hood

EXERCISES

1. Review Chapters XXI and XXII for a list of things accomplished by the Federalists.

2. Review the exploration of Coronado in the Southwest. See page 10 or *Introductory American History*, pages 193–203.

3. Trace on an outline map the journeys of Lewis and Clark and of Pike, making a list of the present states which they touched.

4. Which country, the United States or Spain, had the greater part of the territory west of the Mississippi River after the purchase of Louisiana? (See map, page 267.) What must both do next if they were to hold the territories they claimed?

Important Dates:

1801. Thomas Jefferson becomes President.
1803. Louisiana purchased from France.
1804–1806. Lewis and Clark explore Louisiana and Oregon.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE UNITED STATES AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS

Turmoil again in Europe. — A month after the United States bought Louisiana from Napoleon, war broke out between France and England. This war was in reality a continuation of the war which had been waged from 1793 until 1802. It did not end until 1814. If the first war had given American merchants an opportunity to carry a large part of the freight between the West Indies and Europe, the new war seemed likely to be still more profitable, because all European countries except Turkey were finally drawn into it.

European War and the United States. — Could the Americans keep out of a struggle which, like a terrible whirlpool, might engulf those who appeared to be at a safe distance? Their experience during the war which began in 1793 showed the danger. All the influence of Washington had been needed to keep them from attacking the English in 1794. In the new war their self-restraint was due to the influence of President Jefferson and of President Madison, who succeeded him in 1809.[1] Nevertheless they were finally drawn into the struggle. The War of 1812 was the consequence.

The War at first a Duel between France and England. — From 1803 to 1805 the contest was between the English and the French. It was almost as if an elephant should try to attack a whale. The French army was the best in Europe.

[1] In 1804 Jefferson was overwhelmingly reëlected. In the election four years later Jefferson supported his Secretary of State, James Madison, who was chosen President after a contest almost as one-sided as that of 1804.

It was commanded by Napoleon Bonaparte, the greatest general of modern times, whom the French proclaimed their Emperor in 1804. On land the French army seemed unconquerable so long as he was at its head. But it could not attack the English directly, although England is separated from the Continent only by the Channel, which is twenty-five miles wide. In the "narrow seas," as well as on the broad ocean, the English seemed invincible because of their powerful navy. The French had many battleships, but these were blockaded in French ports by English fleets.

Lord Nelson

Only once during the war did the French venture to fight the English on the sea. This was off Cape Trafalgar in October, 1805, and their fleet, together with the ships of Spain, at that time their ally, numbered 33. The English had 27 ships, but they were commanded by Lord Nelson, who was as skilful on the sea as Napoleon was on the land. What a tremendous conflict, 60 ships-of-the-line, many of them carrying a hundred cannon! The French and the Spaniards sailed in a long line, while the English moved down upon them in two lines or columns. Nelson's flag-ship, the *Victory*, was at the head of one column. At its mast-head flew Nelson's signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Few French or Spanish ships escaped in the fierce struggle which followed. Nelson was killed, but his last victory gave England command of the seas for a century.

Extension of the War.—In 1805 the war began to spread. Austria and Russia became England's allies and declared

war on France. They were defeated, and Austria made peace. In 1806 Prussia, aided by Russia, tried to drive the terrible French Emperor from Germany, but both were beaten and obliged to make peace. Then Sweden, Denmark, and Portugal were forced to take sides. Holland was from the beginning managed by the French. By 1807 the United States was the only neutral of importance. Could the United States trade peacefully in such a warring world?

How American Trade was affected. — The answer to the question depended upon the English, for the United States had only a few frigates, while the English had at least 75 battleships. At first the English permitted American merchants to import French, Spanish, and Dutch sugar and coffee from the West Indies and export them to Europe. But they soon found that the American shippers could undersell them in the European market, notwithstanding the expense of carrying the sugar first into a port of the United States and unloading it. The English merchants and planters complained that their business was suffering. The English government then began seizing American ships engaged in this trade.

English war ships cruised off the ports of the United States and stopped vessels passing in and out, taking possession of those which had broken any of the rules that the English government had made in regard to neutral trade. In stopping a vessel near New York several shots were fired, one of which killed the steersman. Sometimes when the English vessels disappeared French vessels, equally contemptuous of American rights, would take their places.

The English Excuse. — The English parliament had to listen to the complaints of merchants, shipowners, and planters, because it was laying heavy taxes upon them. England was obliged to lend vast sums to her allies on the Continent, otherwise they could not have kept up the conflict with the

French for six months. Even before the war began in 1803 England's debt amounted to five billion dollars, at the present value of money. Every man with more than $2,000 income was compelled to give a tenth of it in taxes to the government.

Difficulties increase.—In 1806 and 1807 troubles thickened for the American merchants. The English declared that they would capture any ships which tried to enter ports on the northwestern coast of France. Bonaparte retorted by declaring that French ships would seize any vessel which traded with Great Britain. England's reply to this challenge was that their enemies in Europe should not have any coffee, sugar, cotton, or dye stuffs, unless they purchased these products from English merchants or from neutral merchants whose ships stopped at an English port and paid taxes on the cargoes. In 1807, before these rules went into effect, the United States exported 64,000,000 pounds of cotton alone, worth $5,476,000.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE
After the portrait by Paul Delaroche

The Embargo. — No one would greatly blame Jefferson and Congress if they had gone to war at this time, so serious were the wrongs under which the United States was suffering. They decided instead to attempt to compel the British to respect American rights by threatening not to buy English goods. This had been a useful weapon in obtaining the repeal of the Stamp Act many years before. But the situation in December, 1807, looked so serious that Jefferson urged Congress to pass an Act called an "Embargo," forbidding Amer-

ican vessels to leave port, and forbidding all other vessels to carry any cargo which was not on board at the time they were notified of the Act. The Embargo enraged the New England shipowners, who were making money in spite of Bonaparte's declarations and England's orders. They could afford to lose a ship or two now and then, taking into account the enormous profits obtained when they landed colonial products or their own goods in Europe. The size of the profits may be guessed when it is remembered that the price of sugar in Paris rose steadily until in 1811 it was 80 cents a pound.

As English vessels could still bring cargoes to the United States, although they could take no cargoes away, the English shipowners did not suffer. They had a monopoly of the ocean freight business, except that along the coast. The New Englanders complained so strongly, even threatening to secede from the Republic, that just before Jefferson's term of office ended a Non-Intercourse Act was substituted for the Embargo. By this Act trade was permitted with all countries except England and France, and would be permitted with them if they agreed to treat American ships fairly.

Conduct of Napoleon. — In all these difficulties the Americans had as much reason to complain of Napoleon's conduct as of that of the British government. At one time he seized American ships worth $10,000,000. French privateers also did a good deal of damage to neutral shipping. However, the French had far less power for harm than the English.

Impressment of Seamen. — The quarrel with the English over the impressment of seamen was quite as fierce as the quarrel about trade. It was customary in England, when a crew was needed for a war ship, to send bodies of marines, called "press-gangs," through the sailors' haunts in the ports and seize enough seamen. If a sailor happened to be an American, he might be seized with the rest. The United

States had no agents in England who could protect its sailors from such outrages. English war ships also frequently stopped merchant vessels on the ocean and took the men they needed. If they thought there were Englishmen on board American vessels, they stopped them also. The fact that a sailor had been naturalized did not save him, for the officers held that he had not ceased to be an Englishman. Before these troubles ended about 4,000 Americans were serving against their will in the British navy.

The injustice was not all on one side. While American merchants were making money as neutral traders, they were eager to obtain men. The number of sailors in the United States was not sufficient to man all the ships. The merchants, accordingly, offered higher wages, raising them from $8 a month to $24. The bait proved attractive, especially as the English sailors were poorly paid and ill-treated. Scores began to desert. Some ships had scarcely men enough to get out of the American port which they had entered. At Norfolk, Virginia, one ship lost every sailor. The sailors often changed their names, obtained naturalization papers, and pretended that they were American citizens. News of such things enraged the British naval officers and they grew more insulting in their search of American ships. Their acts would not have been endured for a moment had the United States been strong enough to compel the British government to change its way of dealing with the difficulty.

The "Chesapeake" and the "Leopard," 1807.—In 1807 several sailors deserted from British frigates in Chesapeake Bay and afterward enlisted on the United States frigate *Chesapeake*, which was then being fitted out for service in the Mediterranean. The British officers requested the return of the men, but American officials refused. This refusal angered the British admiral at Halifax and he ordered that the *Chesapeake* be searched as soon as it appeared on the ocean. The

task was assigned to the frigate *Leopard*. The commander of the *Chesapeake* rightly refused to permit a search, but his ship was not ready for a battle. The *Leopard* fired upon him and in a few minutes he was forced to surrender. The news of the outrage sent a thrill of anger through the country. Jefferson was still anxious to maintain peace.

Madison's Efforts to keep Peace.—President Madison had no better success than Jefferson in persuading the English and the French to respect the rights of neutral traders. After he had been in office a year the Non-Intercourse Act was withdrawn, on the understanding that if either England or France promised to deal fairly with American trade, all commerce with the other was to be broken off. Napoleon hastened to make such an offer,[1] hoping to bring on a conflict between the United States and Great Britain. His shrewd offer was successful. Congress passed a new Non-Intercourse Act directed against the English.

Tippecanoe. — In 1811 the people of the West were aroused against the English because of a threatened Indian attack under the leadership of a chief named Tecumseh. It was said that the Indians were furnished with arms by English traders. The real cause of Indian hostility was the steady advance of the settlers into the Indian hunting grounds. The people of Indiana Territory did not wait to be attacked, but, led by their governor, General William Henry Harrison, marched against the Indians, defeated them at Tippecanoe Creek, and burned their villages.

Henry Clay and Other "War Hawks."—Many had now become dissatisfied with the policy of peace which Jefferson and Madison held. Foremost among these was Henry Clay

[1] At this very time Napoleon was threatening Russia with war because the Emperor Alexander refused to seize several hundred American ships in the Baltic Sea.

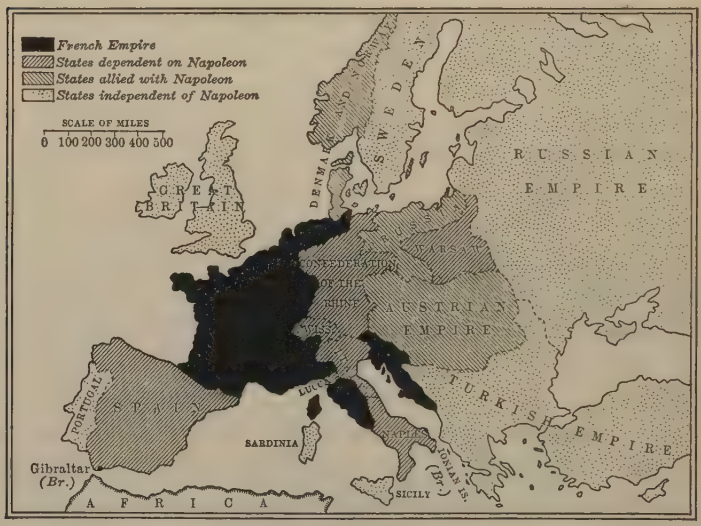
of Kentucky. He was a young lawyer, gifted with a musical voice and a charming manner. He was ably aided by others, like himself full of enthusiasm for American rights and confident of American success in a war. The most distinguished of these was John C. Calhoun, also a young man, and like Clay a brilliant debater. These leaders, who had just been elected to the House of Representatives, did everything they could to bring on war with England. John Randolph, who hated them both, called them and their followers "War Hawks."

The War Hawks were mainly from the new West and the farther South, which were without great sea-ports or exposed shores. Many of the New Englanders thought Napoleon a greater enemy than the English. The War Hawks were willing to wage war against both England and France, except for the cost and risk of defeat. Madison and other statesmen from the middle states, and especially from Virginia, were opposed to war with either country if it could be avoided. Clay argued that the United States could conquer Canada, and then England would either have to yield or lose its colony. This argument won the majority in Congress; Madison, weary of the conflict, gave way, and war was declared.

Should the War have been avoided? — On June 18, 1812, Congress declared war. Two days before this the English government decided to withdraw a part of the regulations which had injured American merchants. The news did not reach the United States until long after the war had begun. Moreover, the other grievances remained. The War Hawks thought the seizure of the sailors worse than interference with American trade.

In declaring war on Great Britain in 1812 the United States became virtually an ally of Napoleon and helped him in two enterprises with which they could have had no sympathy.

For years he had been trying to place his brother on the Spanish throne and the Spaniards were fighting desperately to prevent it. The English under Wellington were assisting the Spaniards and had defeated several French armies in Portugal and in Spain. Of course, to attack the English was to aid Napoleon's Spanish enterprise, at least indirectly.



EUROPE AT THE HEIGHT OF NAPOLEON'S POWER

In 1812 Napoleon invaded Russia with an immense army in order to humble the Emperor, who, for one thing, had refused to seize American neutral vessels in the Baltic Sea two years before. If the Americans succeeded in keeping England, Napoleon's other principal enemy, busy, the Russians might conclude that they were badly rewarded for their fairness. The War Hawks of 1812 thought neither of the Spanish nor of the Russian campaign, except to argue that the English were so deeply involved in their struggle against Napoleon that they could not defend Canada.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was Napoleon Bonaparte so successful? Why was it impossible for him to conquer England? What happened when the French tried to meet the English on the high seas?

2. What other countries were drawn into the great European war? What countries did Napoleon control from the first? Which did he conquer during the war?

3. Why did England wish to stop American trade in sugar and coffee? Were the English the only ones who interfered with American rights? What excuse had the English for helping their merchants to secure a monopoly of trade during the war?

4. What rules about trade did England and France lay down? How did such rules affect American merchants?

5. What methods did Jefferson employ to force England and France to respect American rights? Why did the Embargo make the New England ship-owners angry? Why did it fail to injure English shipowners as much as American? What did Jefferson substitute for the Embargo?

6. How did Napoleon treat American trade on the seas? Why did the United States overlook his acts?

7. What other grievances had the United States against the British? What did the Americans do which gave the British some excuse for thinking them unfair? Tell the story of the *Chesapeake* and *Leopard*.

8. How did Madison try to bring England and France to terms? Why did Napoleon promise to deal fairly with American trade? What was Congress then obliged to do?

9. What special reason had the people of the West for being angry with the British? What was the real cause of the Indian trouble in the West?

10. Who began in 1812 vigorously to oppose Madison's way of dealing with England and France? What expectation had the "War Hawks" from a war with England?

EXERCISES

1. Make two lists: one under the heading, "Reasons why the war should have been avoided," and another under the heading, "Grounds for a war with England."

2. Have the class choose two champions to debate the affirmative and negative sides of the question, "The War of 1812 could have been avoided."

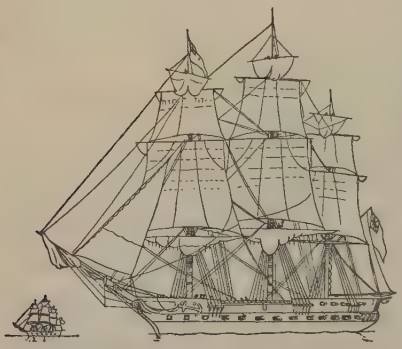
Important Date:

1812. War is declared against Great Britain.

CHAPTER XXV

THE WAR OF 1812

An Unequal Struggle. — The great war in Europe, although it had brought war upon the Americans, saved them from some of the perils of an unequal struggle. What could the United States with an army of 6,700 men and a fleet of 18 ships expect to accomplish against England, whose army numbered 150,000 men and whose fleet consisted of 900 ships? England, however, was obliged to guard many seas, and could despatch only a small part of her fleet to American waters. She could send over only a few regiments, because most of her soldiers were needed for the struggle which Wellington was carrying on with the French in Spain.



American fleet English fleet

RELATIVE SIZE OF THE AMERICAN AND ENGLISH FLEETS

Invasion of Canada. — Clay thought that it would be easy to take Canada. From the first this was the main object of the United States. The leaders forgot that the task was far more difficult than it would have been during the Revolutionary War. At that time the population of Canada was chiefly French. Since then Upper Canada had been settled, much of it with loyalist refugees from the United States. The United Empire Loyalists still remembered their suffer-

ings at the hands of the patriots thirty years before, and could be counted upon to resist stubbornly the attempts of the sons of the patriots to seize their new home.

Hull's Ill-Fated Attempt. — Three separate invasions of Canada were planned: one from Detroit, a second from the Niagara frontier, and a third by the Hudson-Champlain route. General Hull was despatched through the woods of northwestern Ohio and southern Michigan to Detroit. Most of the way he was obliged to cut a road for his troops. It was difficult to feed his soldiers, for, as yet, few settlers lived on the southern and western shores of Lake Erie. The single boat which the Americans had on the lake was soon captured by the British. Supplies could be forwarded only with great difficulty and expense. It cost $60 to carry a barrel of flour from New York or Philadelphia to Detroit. It cost fifty cents to send a pound of powder or shot. The difficulty was increased by the hostility of the Indians, who had not been crushed by their defeat at Tippecanoe the year before. Indeed, Tecumseh rallied them to the aid of the English all through the Northwest.

Upon his arrival in Detroit, Hull issued a pompous proclamation, declaring that he had come to rescue the Canadians from oppression. The legislature of Upper Canada retorted by accusing the Americans of being completely under the control of Bonaparte. Hull's expedition speedily came to a disastrous end. Threatened by an army of British soldiers, Canadian militia, and Indians, and cut off from reinforcements, he surrendered in August, 1812. A short time before the British had captured the little garrison at Mackinac, and the very day before an Indian war party had massacred most of the garrison at Fort Dearborn, where Chicago now stands. The fall of Fort Dearborn, Mackinac, and Detroit gave the British control of Michigan Territory. This was a bad beginning.

Other Invasions. — Every attempt of the American armies to invade and conquer Canada, made in 1812, 1813, and 1814, failed ingloriously. Only once did the invaders hold their own. In 1814, the third year of the war, General Jacob Brown and General Winfield Scott met the English and Canadians at Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, both near Niagara River, and proved that American soldiers were fully equal to the staunchest British regulars. An English officer exclaimed after the battle of Lundy's Lane, "The Americans do not know when they are beaten." Even from these engagements nothing was gained beyond a display of courage, for the army was unable to advance farther into Canada.

LAKE ERIE AND THE SURROUNDING COUNTRY

Perry's Victory on Lake Erie. — The most important object in the war on the Canadian frontier was the control of the Lakes — Erie, Ontario, and Champlain. They were the highways on which armies and supplies could be carried to the places where they were most needed. After the loss of Detroit the United States was particularly anxious to destroy the British fleet on Lake Erie. Captain Oliver Hazard Perry was entrusted with the task. It was necessary to build ships before the struggle could begin. Timber was at hand along the shore. Workmen were brought from Philadelphia. Iron was gathered from farm buildings and shops, and from every available source. Supplies were forwarded from neighboring settlements. Sails, ropes, guns, and ammunition had to be carried overland from Philadelphia and Pittsburgh to Erie,

where the little fleet[1] was being built. The ships were finally ready, and on September 10, 1813, Perry met the British squadron in battle near Put-in-Bay. The fighting was stubborn. Perry's flag-ship, the *Lawrence*, was riddled with shot and became unmanageable. Four-fifths of her crew were either killed or wounded. Perry, undaunted, entered a boat and was rowed to the *Niagara* in the midst of the battle. Soon the victory was his. He tore off the back of an old letter, and with his hat as a table, wrote the news to his superior, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours. Two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." One of the results of the victory was the recovery of Detroit and Michigan Territory.

Raid on Toronto, 1813. — Some weeks before the battle on Lake Erie, an expedition dashed across Lake Ontario and took Toronto, or York as it was then named, the small capital of Upper Canada. Some naval stores and two small ships in the harbor were destroyed or captured. Soldiers acting without orders burned the house where the provincial assembly met. But the explosion of a powder magazine, near the American line of march, killed or wounded nearly 300 men and made the affair cost more than it was worth.

Macdonough's Victory on Lake Champlain, 1814. — Every effort to conquer Canada had failed. In 1814 it looked as if the tables would be turned and that the British would invade the United States. The war against Napoleon came to an end in April, 1814, and 16,000 of Wellington's veterans were sent to Canada. With 7,000 of these men Sir George Prevost, the Governor General of Canada, attempted an invasion by the same route that Burgoyne had taken thirty-seven years earlier. His land forces were accompanied by a

[1] Neither this fleet nor the fleet of Macdonough at Plattsburg would have been called "fleets" on the ocean. The largest British or American ship on the Lakes was not even so large as the *Constitution*.

small flotilla on Lake Champlain. An American force occupied fortified lines at Plattsburg. On the lake a small fleet, under Commander Macdonough, was drawn up awaiting the British. After a desperate fight the British ships were captured or dispersed. Prevost made a half-hearted attack on the American lines and then returned to Canada.

The War on the Sea. — Neither the Americans nor the British permanently occupied any territory belonging to the other along the border between the United States and Canada. The war was not more decisive in other quarters. There could be no attempt by the Americans to oppose fleet to fleet on the ocean, for they did not possess a single ship-of-the-line. Their frigates and smaller vessels could be used only in attacking English commerce or in fighting sea-duels with ships of their own class.

The English could spare ships enough to establish a strict blockade of the American coast. They boasted that they could do more. They declared that "not a sail, but by permission, spreads." They felt nothing but contempt for the little American fleet. All the greater was their chagrin when frigates like the *Constitution* and the *Essex* captured ship after ship in sea-duels.

The "Constitution" and the "Guerrière." — Captain Isaac Hull, commander of the *Constitution*, and a nephew of the unfortunate General Hull, had scarcely left American waters on the coast of New Jersey in July, 1812, when he was pursued by five English vessels. He put on all sail, but as the wind died down escape seemed impossible. Part of the time he had boats out towing his vessel. This the enemy could do as well. Then he kedged his ship, that is, sent a boat a half-mile ahead with a light anchor and a rope attached. The boat dropped the anchor, and the crew on the *Constitution* pulled on the rope until the ship was up with the anchor. In the meantime another boat had set another anchor. By

such seamanship, for two days and three nights, he kept beyond reach of the British guns, until finally a storm arose, which enabled the *Constitution* to escape.

A few weeks later in the Gulf of St. Lawrence the *Constitution* sighted the British frigate *Guerrière*,[1] and gave battle. The *Constitution* was the larger and better ship, but her principal advantage was in the skilful marksmanship of her gunners. After forty minutes the *Guerrière* lay a battered hulk. The *Constitution* was almost unharmed.

THE "CONSTITUTION"

The rejoicing in America was unbounded. Its tiny navy was proving of some value. And the joy was greater because the people hated the *Guerrière* for its share in searching American vessels along the coast before the war began. Nor was the *Constitution*, which the people affectionately called "Old Ironsides,"[2] the only American ship to win fame. Several others fought successfully in one or more sea-duels.

Exploits of the "Essex." — The *Essex*, one of the smallest frigates of the United States, built and given to the government by the patriotic citizens of Salem, captured ten prizes in the Atlantic, and then sailed around Cape Horn into the Pacific to prey on British commerce. Captain David Porter

[1] *Guerrière*, a ship which the British had captured from the French. The name meant "warrior."

[2] Holmes' poem on *Old Ironsides* was written when the government planned to destroy the old worn-out wooden ship. The plan was given up. The ship is now preserved in Charleston Navyyard.

managed to provide his ship with supplies, war material, provisions, medicines, and even money to pay his officers and men, from the British ships that he captured. Once when his prisoners outnumbered his own crew two to one and planned to seize the *Essex*, the timely warning of his young midshipman, David Farragut, saved him.[1] In the Pacific Captain Porter captured a dozen British whaling ships. Porter was finally, after a year and a half of successful fighting, caught on the shore of South America by a superior force, and the *Essex* was captured.

The Blockade of the Atlantic Coast, 1813.—Long before Porter's eventful voyage had ended, the American coast was completely closed. A British squadron hovered in front of each important sea-port. Only a few ships like the *Essex*, and some privateers, were still playing the war game of hide and seek on distant seas and preying on England's widespread commerce.[2] In America almost all trade by sea had ceased. The exports and imports of 1814 were one-seventh of what they had been in 1810. Things like sugar and tea and coffee became so costly that only the rich could afford to buy them. The goods that the merchants expected to send abroad lay in port. The farmers found that part of the market for their crops was gone.

The War Unpopular in New England. — The war had been unpopular in New England from the first. Many people believed it wrong because of the plan to conquer Canada. Others were angry at the loss of their foreign trade. The war became doubly unpopular with the rise of prices and the increase of taxes. Some leaders were misguided enough to talk of secession from the Union and of a separate peace with

[1] David Farragut, then only 11 years old, later became one of America's famous naval officers.

[2] About 1,300 English merchant vessels were captured during the war. American swift-sailing privateers made captures even along the English coast.

England. The governors of several states did almost nothing to help Madison secure men and money. In 1814 Massachusetts withdrew its militia from the service of the United States and directed its movements as if it had been an independent army in a foreign country. Traders even carried provisions to the British army on the Canadian frontier and to British vessels on the coast.

The Burning of Washington, 1814. — The situation of the government was rendered still more distressing by a success-

THE CAPITOL AFTER THE BURNING OF WASHINGTON

ful raid on Washington. No preparations had been made to defend the capital. Not a fort, or breastwork, or battery had been built. A force of 4,500 veterans, led by General Ross, who had served under Wellington in Spain, was sent in August to destroy Washington in retaliation for the burning of York the year before. He marched unchecked to the city, and burned the Capitol, the White House, and other buildings. President Madison and his Cabinet took refuge in Virginia.

Attack on Baltimore. — A few days later General Ross attacked Baltimore.[1] But the citizens of Baltimore prepared

[1] During the bombardment Francis Scott Key of Baltimore went aboard the British fleet on an errand. He was detained throughout the battle, and watched anxiously the damage being done. The following morning, as he looked out from the British ship and saw the Stars and Stripes still waving, he wrote "The Star Spangled Banner."

vigorously and thoroughly for their own defense. General Ross was killed in the attack of the land forces. All day, September 13, the fleet bombarded Fort McHenry at the entrance to the harbor, but the spirited resistance on land and at the fort discouraged the British. They withdrew, and soon left the Chesapeake altogether.

Battle of New Orleans, January 8, 1815. — Two of the expeditions planned by the English government for 1814 had already failed. The British, like the Americans, had found that the invasion of a foreign country is a most difficult matter. By the end of 1814 both nations were weary of the costly and fruitless war and ready to make peace. On Christmas eve, 1814, the representatives of England and the United States agreed to terms of peace at a meeting at Ghent in Belgium. It was February 11, 1815, before the good news could be carried across the Atlantic to the United States. Just one week before this, on February 4, the Americans in Washington learned that a great battle, the greatest of the entire war, had been fought at New Orleans.

General Pakenham, brother-in-law of Wellington, at the head of an army of 9,000 veteran soldiers, supported by a large fleet, attacked New Orleans. Andrew Jackson commanded the line of defense. Nature aided Jackson's army. Swamps, canals, and the river divided the army of invasion and made it hard for its parts to work together. Besides, the British showed the same contempt for American marksmanship that their predecessors had at Bunker Hill, and charged straight across an open field against Jackson's Kentucky and Tennessee riflemen shooting from behind high breastworks. These frontiersmen, hunters, and Indian fighters struck the enemy down, said an eye-witness, "like blades of grass beneath the scythe of the mower." An experienced British officer described the fire as "the most murderous and destructive fire of all arms ever poured upon a

column." The British left 700 dead on the field, among them General Pakenham. Their total losses were 2,600.

Results of the War of 1812. — The treaty of peace settled none of the questions for which the two nations had gone to war. These had settled themselves before the war ended. When the greater war in Europe was over, England had no reason to press American seamen into service, nor had either England or France any reason to seize American goods. Although the war cost a great deal in men and money, it had some good results. England was ready to treat the United States with greater respect. Historians have said that the war marked the beginning of commercial independence for the United States, and have therefore called it the "second war of independence."

Other Questions Settled. — Within a few years after the close of the war several important agreements were made by the two countries. In 1817 they agreed to reduce the number of government ships on the Great Lakes, keeping only a few small vessels to enforce the laws about fishing. It was a fortunate arrangement, for it relieved both nations of great expense and removed the dangers which come from the presence of rival fleets in the same waters. The following year, chiefly through the efforts of John Quincy Adams, then Secretary of State, England agreed, as she had in 1783, to allow American fishermen to fish in the waters on the coast of Labrador and Newfoundland, and to dry on shore the fish they caught. This was a privilege of great value to New England fishermen. At the same time the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains was fixed at the forty-ninth parallel. Beyond the Rocky Mountains both nations claimed the whole of Oregon and agreed for a while to hold it as a common territory.

The end of the War of 1812, and the settlement of the other differences with England, left the American people free to turn

away from European affairs and to devote themselves mainly to the development of new industries and to the settlement of their vast interior lands.

QUESTIONS

1. What advantage had England in the war with the United States? What made her advantage less than it would have been at another time?

2. What was the chief part of the plan of the United States for the war? Why were many Canadians opposed to the United States?

3. What obstacles did Hull's expedition meet? What did the British gain in the first year of the war? Were the armies of the United States any more successful in invading Canada during 1813 and 1814?

4. Describe Perry's victory on Lake Erie. Did the raid on Toronto benefit the United States? Why was Macdonough's victory important for the United States?

5. Why could not the United States do as much on the high seas? Tell the stories of the *Constitution* and of the *Essex*.

6. How did the blockade affect the United States? Why was the war unpopular?

7. What veterans did England send to the United States? Describe the British expedition against Washington and Baltimore. What did the expedition accomplish?

8. What battle took place after the treaty of peace was agreed to? Why did Jackson defeat the British?

9. Why were the causes of the war not settled in the treaty of peace? What important friendly agreements did the United States and Great Britain make soon after the War of 1812?

REVIEW EXERCISES

1. Describe the migration of the loyalists to Canada during the Revolution, and the effect on the conquest of Canada in 1812.

2. State the difficulties which the new republic had with other nations from 1783 to 1814.

3. State what friendly agreements the United States entered into with England in 1794, 1817, and 1818.

4. Did the Revolution have the same effect on American foreign trade as did the War of 1812?

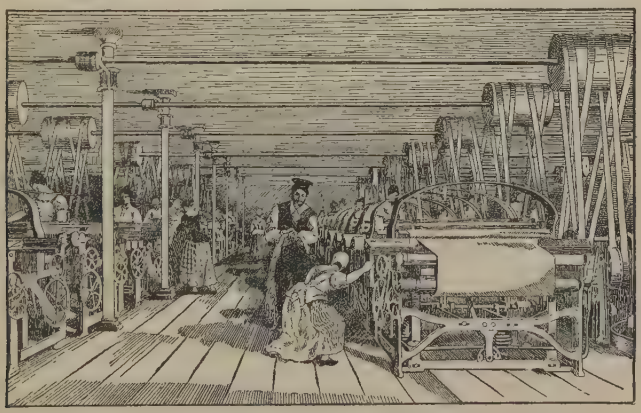
Important Dates:

1812. The war with England begins.
1814. A treaty of peace ends the war.

CHAPTER XXVI

NEW WORK AND NEW ROUTES

One Consequence of War. — The interruption of foreign trade by the Embargo and Non-Intercourse Acts as well as by the War of 1812 forced Americans to supply most of their own needs. For several years they could not obtain the cottons, woolens, articles of iron and steel, and many other things which they had been accustomed to buy in England.



Power Looms in an English Mill, 1820

They, therefore, built more iron mills, set up more spinning machines, and wove more cloth. They used nine times as many bales of cotton in 1815 as in 1810. The number of spindles increased from 80,000 to 500,000. Merchants and shipowners, whose business was ruined by the war, began to build factories. In 1815 there were over 100 cotton mills within thirty miles of Providence, Rhode Island. Weaving, however, was still done on hand-looms.

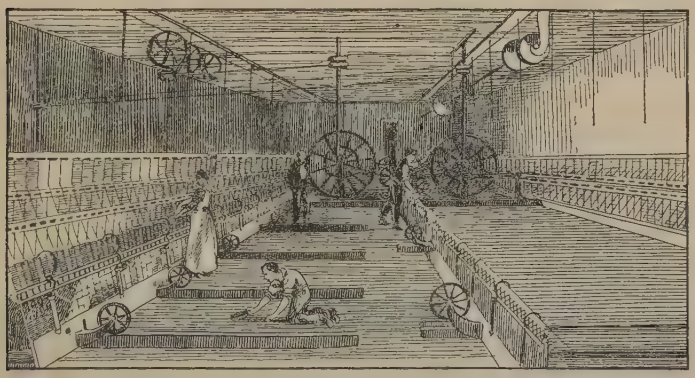
A Complete Mill. — In 1814 Francis Lowell, who had visited England in order to examine the power-looms, returned to the United States and succeeded in constructing similar machinery in a cotton factory in Waltham, Massachusetts. Lowell's factory differed from the English factories by bringing under one roof all the new machines for spinning, weaving, and finishing, so that they could be run by the same power. Other men built factories like Lowell's. The machinery was soon adapted to spinning, weaving, and finishing linen and woolen goods. While New England was the center of the new industries, many were located in other states. These factories, like the English mills, were generally run by water-power, but one in New York was run by a steam-engine.

Iron, Steel, and Coal. — The multiplication of iron and steel mills increased the need of coal. The mining of bituminous or soft coal had been carried on about Pittsburgh for nearly twenty years. Already the town was being described as a "smoky city." Among the inventions used there was a machine which would cut and head nails. The products of the mills of western Pennsylvania, including nails, hinges, locks, and tools of all kinds, were loaded on barges and floated down to New Orleans. Kettles also were sold to the sugar planters of Louisiana.

The steel mills of eastern Pennsylvania and the other states on the coast had relied upon England for supplies of soft coal. Fortunately, when the war cut off their trade with England, a grate was invented which created draft enough to burn anthracite. Up to that time anthracite, called stone coal, had been regarded as worthless except as gravel for sidewalks. The mill owners now began to use it in melting iron ores.

What Machines accomplished. — As mills were built and improved machines set up, the amount of work accomplished was increased enormously. For example, one person running a mule spinner which carried 3,000 spindles could spin as

much thread as 3,000 women 40 or 50 years before. A weaver with a power-loom could make 1,600 yards of cotton cloth in a week, while he could make only 40 with a hand-loom. One consequence of the change was the rapid reduction of prices. Cotton sheeting in 1815 was 40 cents a yard, while fourteen years later it was $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents. Similar changes were going on in other manufactures where machines and new methods were introduced.



Spinning Room in an American Mill, 1830
From an old print

From Household to Factory. — The transfer of industries from the household and the little shop, which had begun with the building of Slater's first mill and the invention of the cotton-gin, still went on slowly, but surely. The spinning-wheel, the hand-loom, and the household forge were used less and less and were finally abandoned. Within twenty or thirty years after the War of 1812, home-made products gave way almost everywhere to articles made in mills and factories. If women and girls needed employment outside of the home, they must seek it in the mills. Indeed, they were the ones who ran the spinning frames and the looms, the men doing the heavier work about the mills. Although each machine

did the work of many hands, no hand need long be without employment, because the mills were built so rapidly, increasing from four in 1805 to 795 in 1831. What was true of the cotton industry was true also of other industries. The things which were produced found a ready sale, since the prices were lower, and people used larger quantities. Moreover, the population was growing rapidly, and new markets were being opened every day.

More Workers needed. — The demand for wool, flax, cotton, coal, and iron gave chances of work everywhere to willing hands. The mills called the young men and women to the towns. The farms and fields called other young men and women almost as loudly, for the townspeople must be fed, the sheep must be cared for, and the cotton and flax raised. The new work made many opportunities for immigrants. Their number soon began to increase greatly.

The need of more workers had one unfortunate consequence. Cotton growing required a very large number of the cheapest or least skilled laborers. The increased demand for cotton, therefore, fixed on the southern plantations more firmly than ever another sort of labor — that of slaves.[1]

English Manufacturers and the American Market. — When peace came the English manufacturers tried to regain the trade with the United States which the war had cut off. They saw that American manufacturers had taken their places in making goods for American purchasers, and they now resolved to sell their goods at such low prices as to ruin the business of the American manufacturers. A prominent member of parliament explained that it "was well worth while to incur a loss on the first exportation in order to stifle in the cradle

[1] Several states forbade the importation of slaves, and in 1807 Congress also tried to put a stop to the slave-trade. So great, however, was the demand for slaves on the plantations, that the government could not always enforce the laws which prohibited the bringing of slaves into the United States.

those rising manufactures in the United States." This plan partly accounts for the enormous sales to American merchants in 1816. American imports in that year were valued at $147,000,000, while during the last year of the war they were worth only $13,000,000.

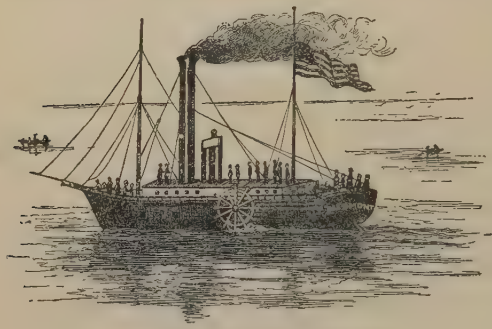
The new or "infant" industries of the United States were threatened with ruin. The eastern iron works were obliged to shut down. The Pittsburgh mills could go on, because the cost of sending English goods across the mountains raised their price. The cotton and woolen factories of the East were also in danger. In their distress the mill owners petitioned Congress for more "protection." Congress accordingly passed the Tariff of 1816, which raised the rates provided in the earlier tariffs and added duties on goods which had not been "protected."

While the English wished to sell their manufactures to the Americans, they did not wish to buy grain of the Americans. In 1815 the English parliament passed new "corn" or grain laws, preventing the importation of grain until the price of English grain was $2.50 a bushel. Each country arranged its tariff with the aim of selling to its neighbors without being obliged to buy from them. They were all "protectionists." In the Tariff of 1816, therefore, Congress did what the legislatures or royal councils of Great Britain and all European countries were doing.

Need for Roads and Canals. — With the increase of manufactures and trade and the rapid advance of the population into the Mississippi Valley, Americans felt the need of more roads and bridges and canals, and, in fact, of every possible means of communication. The problem was difficult, because the new states could not raise great sums of money by taxation, and the United States at the time was loaded down with war debts. The western farmers were willing to have the government protect the manufacturers with the tariff,

if it would in turn build roads and canals over which they could afford to send their products to the coast in exchange for the goods that they needed on the frontier. This was the reason why the people demanded that the government undertake "internal improvements."

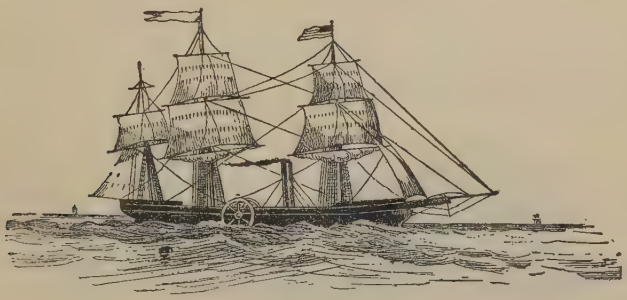
The Invention of the Steamboat; Robert Fulton. — For twenty years men had been trying to plan a boat which could use Watt's steam-engine as its motive power. In 1807 Robert Fulton, the son of an Irish immigrant, built the *Clermont*, on which he fitted up a steam-engine to run a pair of side-wheels. His neighbors called it "Fulton's Folly," but to their astonishment it started off and plowed its way up the Hudson River. It reached Albany, 150 miles away, in 32 hours. Such a journey proved that Fulton's invention was a success. The next year the *Clermont* made the voyage on the Hudson regularly two or three times a week.



THE "CLERMONT"

Steamboats soon came into general use. In 1811 one built in Pittsburgh made the long voyage down the Ohio and the Mississippi to New Orleans. Four years later, in 1815, another succeeded in making the voyage up-stream against the strong current. It then required 25 days to go from New Orleans to Louisville. In 1819 steamboats ascended the swifter current of the Missouri River far on the route of Lewis and Clark. In 1819, also, the *Savannah*, using both sails and steam-engine, crossed the Atlantic Ocean.

From this time on steamboats multiplied rapidly, especially in the West. Twenty-one were built on the Ohio River in 1819. A year later there were 71 on the Ohio, the Mississippi, and the other western rivers. As yet only four



THE "SAVANNAH"
The first steamship that crossed the Atlantic

steamboats had been built on the Great Lakes. Travel, emigration, and trade had not begun to follow that route.

Advantages of the River Towns. — With an ocean port at New Orleans the towns on the rivers of the Mississippi Valley had a great advantage over the settlements on the shores of the Lakes. These northern settlements were difficult to reach, for the St. Lawrence Valley was in the hands of the British. Chicago and Milwaukee were still mere stations for fur traders. Detroit, Cleveland, and Buffalo were only villages. The region from the Mohawk Valley to the eastern end of Lake Erie was a wilderness.

The river towns, on the other hand, were on the great highways from the East to the West and from the northern West to the Gulf of Mexico. The steamboat shortened the distances. Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis became large and prosperous trading centers. To St. Louis were brought the furs of the new Northwest. Louisville was the market for Kentucky tobacco and hemp. At Cincinnati

a flourishing meat-packing business was established. Until the War of 1812, droves of 4,000 or 5,000 hogs had been driven across the mountains to Philadelphia and Baltimore, feeding on the nuts and acorns of the forests by the way. Now cattle and hogs were kept on the feeding-grounds of Ohio until they were ready for the packers of Cincinnati. New Orleans was the port where most of the products of the West were marketed.

A Toll-Gate and Bridge

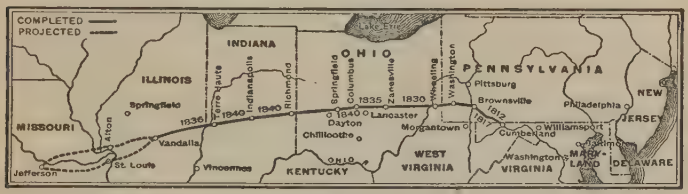
Turnpikes and Bridges. — In the West, wagon roads were almost unknown except in a few older settlements. The old Indian trails were used, but few travelers tried to go far from the rivers. In the East, the local governments and private companies had built many paved roads or turnpikes, stretching out from the chief towns like the spokes of a wheel. Toll-gates were placed at frequent intervals to take toll from the traveler in order to pay the cost of repairs and a profit to the builders. The old fords along the way were bridged with stone arches and the swamps crossed by logs or planks laid side by side.[1]

The National Road, 1818. — Neither local governments nor private companies could undertake the costly enterprise of a road across the mountains. Eastern merchants were

[1] A Scotch engineer, Macadam, had already shown how to build solid, well-drained roads. His plans were followed by American road-builders.

alarmed at the advantage which the steamboat gave to their rivals at New Orleans. It cost much more to send goods over the mountains than from New Orleans. Besides, statesmen of the day were afraid that the loose-jointed republic would break apart at the mountains.

George Washington had taken an interest in a great wagon road across the Alleghanies and had repeatedly urged that one should be built. In 1818 Congress finally carried out Washington's plan, even following the trail that he had blazed



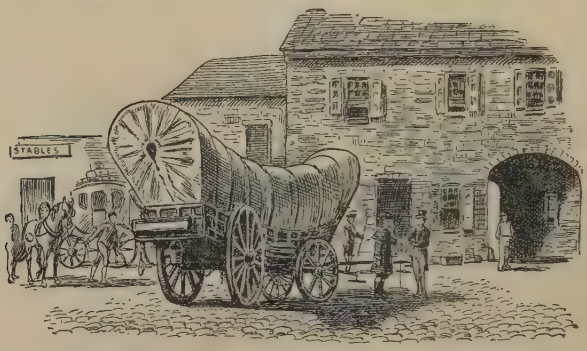
ROUTE OF THE NATIONAL ROAD, 1812–1840

for a part of the way. In 1818 the National Road, carefully graded and covered with crushed stone, reached from Cumberland on the Potomac to Wheeling on the Ohio, and was later extended westward as far as Vandalia, in Illinois.

Stage Coaches. — The new roads, and especially the National Road, made it easier for emigrants to reach the West, and cheaper for merchants to transport their goods. Better roads were followed by finer and swifter stage-coaches for the traveler. Daily stage-coaches set out for the West or ran between the main towns. People at that time marveled at their swiftness. They now made the journey from Boston to New York in two days, and from New York to Philadelphia in fifteen hours. The government mail coaches, by running day and night on the new National Road, made the journey from Cumberland to Wheeling in exactly twenty-four hours. Travelers in the ordinary passenger coaches could not go so rapidly. Six days was the usual time from Philadelphia

to Pittsburgh. Horses were changed every few miles, and the drivers boasted that the change was made before the coach stopped rocking. Freight was carried between distant cities by large Conestoga wagons, each drawn by six powerful horses.[1]

Erie Canal, 1825. — The building of the National Road helped the ports of Philadelphia and Baltimore far more



"Conestoga" Wagon for carrying Freight

than New York. It also increased the advantage which the river towns of the West possessed over the settlements along the shores of the Lakes. De Witt Clinton and other public-spirited men resolved to guard the future of New York City, open western New York state, and gain a route to the Lakes, and through them to the Northwest.

With such objects in mind Clinton persuaded the legislature of New York to raise the money for a canal from Albany to Buffalo. To build a "big ditch," as Clinton's enemies called it, 360 miles long, by means of spades and wheel-barrows, seemed a wild scheme, but the plan won the support of the people and, in 1825, after eight years of work, it was completed.

[1] The name "Conestoga" was given because they were first used by the thrifty farmers in the valley of the Conestoga River, in eastern Pennsylvania, for carrying their farm products to market.

It was a great event for New York City, and for the people along the way, but most of all for the people of the West. It had formerly cost them $32 a ton to send their freight 100 miles by wagon. The canal carried the same load for $1. A stream of emigrants began to move by the canal into the region on the Lakes. They were as certain to find a good market for their products as the farmers on the rivers.

MAP OF THE ERIE CANAL

Other Canals. — Ohio, encouraged by the example of New York, built a system of canals connecting the Ohio River and Lake Erie. Ports like Cleveland became distributing centers for products from the East, brought by the Erie Canal and Lake Erie. The farm products of Ohio and northern Indiana were forwarded to the East from these ports. Steamboats were multiplied on the Lakes as they had been multiplied on the western rivers.

Philadelphia was alarmed by the success of the Erie Canal and attempted to rival it by building a canal to Pittsburgh. Part of the way the freight was hauled across the mountains, being pulled up and let down inclined railways by stationary engines placed at the highest point.

Every state now wanted a net-work of canals to reach districts far from rivers and lakes. Congress gave liberally to aid some of these projects, offering large sections of the public lands, by the sale of which the needed money might be furnished.

A Canal Passenger Packet

Union of East and West. — These new routes of travel and trade not only enriched the settlements along the way, the merchants on the coast, and the farmers of the Mississippi Valley, but they strengthened the bonds of union between the West and the East. Washington's hope was finally realized.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the effect of the interruption of foreign trade? What invention was introduced into the United States as a consequence? How did the American factories differ from the English?

2. What changes took place in the iron and steel industry?

3. How did the new machinery affect the amount of work done by laborers? The price of goods? The classes of laborers? The demand for slaves?

4. How did the English manufacturers try to ruin their American rivals? Why were the Pittsburgh mills not injured? How did Congress help the manufacturers? What was the aim of the various nations in arranging their tariffs?

5. What gave rise to demands for better means for traveling and carrying freight? Why was the problem a difficult one? Why did the western farmers expect the United States to build roads and canals?

6. Why was Fulton's invention timely? Where did steamboats find a great work to do?

7. Why did the river towns of the West have an advantage over those on the shores of the Great Lakes? How did New Orleans, St. Louis, Louisville, and Cincinnati obtain a leadership in trade?

8. How did many places secure roads and bridges? Why were the people of the East anxious to have a road across the Alleghany Mountains? How was the National Road built? What useful purpose did it serve when completed? What improvements were made in the stage-coach lines?

9. What cities did the National Road help the most? What did De Witt Clinton persuade New York to do? Why was his "big ditch" a great undertaking?

10. What were some of the results of building the Erie Canal? What other canals were soon built? What effect had these canals?

EXERCISES

1. Are there any occupations of the home to-day being crowded out by inventions and new business methods?
2. Which countries to-day have a "protective" tariff and which do not?
3. Find out why some cities have grown more prosperous than others.
4. If there is an old canal in the neighborhood, learn about its history.

Important Dates:

1807. Robert Fulton invents a steamboat.
1814. Francis Lowell introduces the power-loom and the new kind of factories into the United States.
1818. The National Road is completed from Cumberland to Wheeling.
1825. The Erie Canal is finished from Albany to Buffalo.

An Old Time Stage-Coach

CHAPTER XXVII

THE MARCH OF POPULATION WESTWARD

Immigration after the War. — The same years which saw the growth of American manufactures and the opening of new routes for trade and travel, saw a great tide of immigration coming toward the shores of America, and especially toward the fertile regions of the Mississippi Valley. They saw also an important extension of American territory and influence.

From the close of the Revolution to the end of the War of 1812, that is from 1783 to 1815, comparatively few came to America. The great wars kept men from leaving Europe, drawing them into armies or navies or into the employments which war creates. With the return of peace in 1815, the tide of immigration set in again. It was small at first, ten or twelve thousand a year, but the number steadily increased.

Not only did the opportunities in America attract immigrants, but poor people found it hard to make a living in Europe. The wars left a heavy burden of taxation. Soldiers and sailors, dismissed from the armies and out of work, crowded every occupation. Wages were very low. The peasant farmers, in Germany especially, found that they must still pay dues to the nobles.

The immigrants of this period were mostly from England and Ireland, although a few came from Germany. The Irish were chiefly peasants, but in the United States most of them worked in factories or did the hard out-door work of the coast towns. Englishmen who understood a trade quickly found employment in similar trades. Many English and German

immigrants were farmers and were eager to obtain land in the West.

The Westward Movement after the War of 1812. — Besides the new immigrants from Europe who sought lands in the West, many people moved from the older settlements. A European traveler in 1817 says that on the roads leading across the mountains he was seldom out of sight of family groups. Each was traveling as its means permitted. Some went in stage-coaches or their own covered wagons. Many

SCENE ON THE OHIO RIVER
The main highway of the early West

times whole families, because of poverty, set out on foot, carrying on their backs or on a light wagon, dragged along by the father and sons, the few articles which they would need on the way.

The blockade of the Atlantic coast during the last year of the War of 1812 made earning a living so hard that many started for the lands which Congress offered for sale in the Mississippi Valley. Consequently the movement of people toward the frontier had never ceased. After the war closed, it became so great that certain eastern towns were alarmed, fearing that they would lose their inhabitants.

New Frontiers. — By this time the frontier had moved still farther westward. Indiana and Illinois in the North-

west, and Alabama and Mississippi in the Southwest, were most often the goal of the land seekers. The lands on the Missouri were occupied by the vanguard of the "army." In 1821 Congress reduced the price of the land from $2.00 to $1.25 an acre, so that a thrifty man could soon save enough to buy a farm. The majority of the settlers on the new frontiers were poor, and some of them did not trouble themselves to obtain a right to the soil. They "squatted" on

CHICAGO IN 1820
From an old print

lands far from settlements, hoping to remain undisturbed until they earned enough to buy the land.

New States. — The rivers were the highways to the West until the Erie Canal was opened. People who intended to settle in Indiana or Illinois commonly traveled to the Ohio River and floated down or took a steamboat to the village nearest the lands they expected to purchase. The result was that the southern part of these territories was settled first. Another reason for this was that many of the settlers came from Kentucky and Tennessee. Many Kentuckians and Tennesseans also moved south into Mississippi and Alabama. These western territories grew so rapidly that four of them were

soon admitted into the Union; Indiana in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, and Alabama in 1819. Louisiana had become a state in 1812.

The Lincolns and Davises as Pioneers. — The story of Abraham Lincoln and of Jefferson Davis tells something of the two streams of pioneers. Both were born in Kentucky near the center of the state, Lincoln in 1809 and Davis in 1808. Lincoln's father took his family to Indiana, but soon moved on into Illinois. The Davises went to Louisiana, only to leave almost immediately for the newer settlements in Mississippi.

LOG-CABIN IN WHICH ABRAHAM LINCOLN WAS BORN

Life of the Settler. — In the new region young Lincoln lived the life of the frontier boy. He watched his father build a one-room log-cabin, which was left for a long time without a floor or a door, watched him make the rude furniture from rough slabs of wood, and clear the first patches of ground for corn and potatoes. He learned the simple pursuits of the farm boy — to drive the team, to handle the rude plow, to cut wheat with a sickle and thresh it with a flail, and finally fan and clean it in the wind. Most of the time the boy spent in clearing fields or splitting the rails used in making the zigzag or worm fences. When there was nothing to be done at home, he worked for a neighboring settler, earning his "keep" and 25 cents a day.

Life in the West in Lincoln's boyhood was almost the same as it had been on each new frontier since the founding of Jamestown. The opportunity to obtain an education was small. If the settlers could afford it, they started a school and hired a teacher. Lincoln called such schools, "ABC

schools." Court-houses and churches were as rare as school buildings. Judges and lawyers rode on horseback from settlement to settlement, deciding cases sometimes in a log-cabin, sometimes in a tavern. The preacher also rode from church to church.

An ambitious boy, like Lincoln, turned from one thing to another, each a step higher than the last. Lincoln became a store-keeper, post-master, road supervisor, lawyer, and finally a law-maker. The great office that he was to hold in 1861 was still in the distant future. Not every western boy had the character and abilities of Lincoln, but each had an opportunity to show what was in him.

Grinding Corn on the Frontier

A Cotton Plantation of Mississippi. — The story of Jefferson Davis is also interesting. His father was a successful frontier cotton planter. Young Davis was sent to eastern schools for an education. After a brief career in the army, he became a Mississippi cotton planter, and finally, like Lincoln, a political leader.

In one respect the southern frontier differed greatly from the northern. The demand for cotton was so great that the new lands were divided into large plantations rather than small farms. The cotton planters who migrated from the older communities on the eastern coast or in Tennessee and Kentucky, brought their slave laborers with them. As in the older settlements in the Carolinas, some of the slaves

became carpenters, bricklayers, and blacksmiths, and performed such work on the plantations. The more intelligent and trustworthy were kept as house-servants and drivers. The others — men, women, and older children — were sent to the fields. Clearing the land, planting, hoeing, picking, ginning, and baling cotton, and hauling it to market furnished work for many laborers all the year round. There were few days in so warm a climate when out door work could not be done. A bell in the yard summoned the slave gangs to work at sunrise, and the day ended at sundown. Food was given to them from the common storeroom. White overseers and trusty negroes directed the work.

NEGRO QUARTERS
From an old print

Three things made the plantation system successful: (1) cheap and fertile land, (2) slave labor at moderate cost, and (3) a steady market for cotton in the North and in Europe. Farmers who had been accustomed to do their own work were able from the great profits of their cotton to buy slaves and so become planters. Fabulous stories were told in the East of the riches gained from planting cotton in the deep fertile soil of the Mississippi Valley. A multitude of emigrants from Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia — planters and common farmers — abandoned worn-out or less productive lands for the new frontier.

Two Streams of Migration meet in Missouri. — The two

streams of migration, the northern and southern, in the ceaseless search for better land, did not stop with the Mississippi. Both came together in Missouri, where planter and free farmer mingled. By 1821 a few of the more adventurous frontiersmen went on, even beyond the boundaries of the United States, to the Spanish lands in Texas.

The Missouri Compromise. — In 1820 Missouri asked to be admitted as a state. This raised a new question. Should the states formed from the Louisiana Purchase be admitted into the Union as states in which slavery should be allowed or in which it should be prohibited? It happened that in 11 of the 22 states, slaves formed the main body of laborers and that in the other 11 there were either very few slaves, as in Pennsylvania, or none at all, as in Massachusetts. Opinion in the Senate was evenly divided, 11 states on each side, though in the House of Representatives the group which wished to stop the spread of slavery had a majority. Whichever group should win a new state would of course gain two votes in the Senate. The dispute was finally settled on this occasion by a famous bargain.

The Maine settlers, whose territory had long been a part of Massachusetts, wished to enter the Union as a separate state, and to do so without allowing slavery. The majority of the people of Missouri, on the other hand, desired to make slavery legal within their own boundaries. Henry Clay suggested that the whole matter be settled by allowing Maine and Missouri to have their way. This would keep the two factions in the Senate equal, twelve states belonging to each. As for the rest of the Louisiana Territory, except Louisiana and Missouri, slavery should be forbidden in all that portion north of the parallel of 36° 30′. Nothing was said about the portion south of the line, but it was intended that it should be open to settlers with slaves.

The Missouri Compromise, as the bargain was called, was

BRITISH AMERICA
CANADA
OREGON
COUNTRY
Columbia R.
Under Joint occupation of Great Britain and the United States by treaty of 1819
MISSOURI TERRITORY
BOUNDARY LINE OF 1819
GREAT SALT LAKE
Platte R.
Missouri R.
Arkansas R.
TREATY WITH SPAIN
Red R.
Free Soil by Missouri Compromise 1820
FREE SOIL
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
FREE BY ORDINANCE OF 1787
L. SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
MILWAUKEE
DETROIT
CHICAGO
FT. WAYNE
CLEVELAND
PEORIA
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
COLUMBUS
CINCINNATI
VANDALIA
VINCENNES
ST. LOUIS
MISSOURI 1821
LOUISVILLE
KENTUCKY
MISSOURI COMPROMISE LINE 1820
SLAVE SOIL BY MISSOURI COMPROMISE 1820
ARKANSAS TER.
MEMPHIS
TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE
SLAVE SOIL
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
LOUISIANA
MOBILE
NEW ORLEANS
GALVESTON
SPANISH
MEXICO
SAN FRANCISCO
SANTA FE
Colorado R.
Rio Grande
LOWER CALIFORNIA
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
ONTARIO
NEW YORK
ALBANY
MASS.
BOSTON
CONN.
MAINE 1820
PORTLAND
PENNSYLVANIA
PHILADELPHIA
TRENTON
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
WASHINGTON
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
NORFOLK
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
WILMINGTON
AUGUSTA
GEORGIA
CHARLESTON
SAVANNAH
JACKSONVILLE
ST. AUGUSTINE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAHAMA
MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
1820
SHOWING THE
MISSOURI COMPROMISE
C. J. PETERS & SON ENGRS., BOSTON
Longitude West 97 from Greenwich
127
117
107
97
87
77
67
45
38° 30'
35
25
36° 30'

really a victory for those who wished to exclude slavery from the territories. Nine-tenths of Louisiana Territory lay north of 36° 30′.

The Purchase of Florida, 1819.—In 1819 a large extension of territory where slavery was already recognized partly compensated the South for what it lost by the Missouri Compromise. Ever since the purchase of Louisiana in 1803 the United States had tried to buy Florida from Spain. Finally, in 1819, an agreement was reached, and the United States purchased the whole territory of Florida for about $5,000,000. The United States agreed at the same time not to claim that Texas was a part of the old Louisiana Purchase; that is, to regard the Sabine River as the boundary between its own territory and Mexico. The purchase meant that the people of the South possessed the river courses over which their commerce travelled to the sea. Andrew Jackson had a short time before conquered the Creek Indians in the southwestern part of Georgia and opened the lands to settlement.

Revolution in the Spanish Colonies. — Spain was the more ready to give up Florida as she was fighting hard to keep control of her colonies in Mexico and South America. Rebellion had broken out in those colonies when Napoleon declared his brother king of Spain. After the restoration of Ferdinand VII, whom Napoleon had held a prisoner, the colonists hoped that they would receive more rights in return for their loyalty. The Spanish government, however, was unwilling to grant to the colonists the privileges that the English colonists had enjoyed before the War of Independence.

The result was new revolutionary outbreaks, especially in the region of the La Plata River, now called the Argentine Republic, and in northern South America, now divided between the United States of Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador. The hero of the south was San Martin, the hero of the north Simon Bolivar. The story of San Martin's

passage of the Andes to free Chili reads like Hannibal's march across the Alps two thousand years before. A still finer story tells how at the moment of triumph the liberator of the Argentine, Chili, and Peru laid down his office in order not to offend Bolivar, his more ambitious rival, who had just reached Peru. The last victory over Spain, making independence certain, was won at Ayacucho on December 9, 1824.

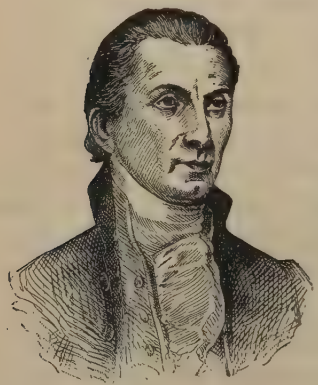
By this time, also, Mexico and the Central American states had won their independence. All that were left to Spain of her great colonial empire were Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands. What a change had taken place within 50 years! In 1775 North and South America were principally made up of English and Spanish colonies. By 1825 these colonies had been transformed into republics, preserving the civilization which their settlers had learned from the European world, but free to manage their own affairs and guard their own interests.

The Last Resource of Spain. — In 1823 Ferdinand VII of Spain had hoped that the governments of France, Prussia, Austria, and Russia would interfere before it was too late, and save his colonies in America. The European monarchs and their advisers remembered so vividly the French Revolution, and all that they had suffered from the Revolutionary and Napoleonic armies, that they were anxious to put down revolution everywhere. The possibility that European governments would send an expedition across the Atlantic excited the people of the United States. Fortunately the English were also opposed to such an attempt, chiefly because they enjoyed a thriving trade with the new republics, which they would lose if Ferdinand recovered his authority over his rebellious colonies.

Another danger seemed to threaten the Americans. While the English had been occupied in exploring and settling America, the Russians had advanced across Siberia, making scat-

tered settlements as they went. They finally reached and crossed Bering Strait and moved down the western coast of North America, eager to gain the fur trade of the far Northwest. They claimed a part of the Oregon country and might compel Spain to grant them California in return for help in reconquering the Spanish colonies.

Just then, George Canning, one of the chief ministers of England, suggested that England and the United States join in a declaration "in the face of the world" that they would oppose the plans of the European monarchs for the reconquest of Spanish America. James Monroe was President of the United States, having been elected, practically without opposition, in 1817 and again in 1821. John Quincy Adams, his Secretary of State, urged that the United States make its declaration separately, "rather than come in as a cock-boat in the wake of a British man-of-war." His opinion was adopted by the President.



JAMES MONROE

The Monroe Doctrine, 1823. — Canning sent word to France that Great Britain would oppose any plan to subdue Spanish America. This made the plan impossible, for Great Britain controlled the sea as completely as she had after Nelson's great victory in 1805. When Congress met in December, Monroe made the American declaration, which showed the European schemers that they would find difficulties on the land, even if they succeeded in crossing the sea. He said that the United States would resist any attempt to oppress or change the government of any free republic in America. He also said, with the Russians in mind, that the

American continents were no longer open for colonization by any European governments. He did not intend, however, to meddle with any European colonies which, like Canada, were still left on this side of the Atlantic. Spain was soon obliged to acknowledge the independence of the Spanish American republics, and Russia agreed in 1824 not to extend her Alaskan territories south of the parallel 54° 40′.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were there few immigrants to the United States from 1783 to 1815? Why did more come after 1815? From what part of Europe did they come? What did the new-comers find to do in the United States?

2. What two classes of settlers sought lands in the West? How did travelers reach the West? Where was the frontier at this time? In what two ways did settlers obtain lands? Why did immigrants settle the southern part of Indiana and Illinois before the northern? What new states were admitted soon after the War of 1812?

3. What were the chief occupations of frontiersmen like Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis? How did lawyers, judges, and preachers reach their work?

4. In what way did the southern frontier differ from the northern? What kinds of work did the slaves perform? What things made the plantation system successful? Why did many planters of the older states go to the new frontier? Where did the two streams of western migration meet? What region beyond the United States were the hardiest frontiersmen beginning to enter?

5. What new question was raised by the effort of Missouri to be admitted as a state? Why were there differences of opinion about this? How was the question finally settled? Which gained an advantage by the Missouri Compromise, the North or the South?

6. What new territory partly compensated the South for the disadvantage of the Missouri Compromise? How was Florida secured? What arrangement was made about the western boundary of Louisiana? Why were the Mississippi Valley states very anxious to have Florida annexed?

7. What conditions in South America made Spain ready to sell Florida? Why did the Spanish colonies revolt? Who were the leaders in their war of independence? Which gained their independence? Which did not?

8. What plan did the king of Spain form for regaining his lost colonies? What was Russia trying to do at the same time? Why did these schemes alarm the United States? How did George Canning propose to prevent the reconquest of the Spanish colonies? Why did Adams dislike Canning's plan? What steps did Canning take for England and Monroe for the United States? Why

would it have been impossible for the European nations to help Spain recon-quer its colonies?

9. What did Monroe say the United States would resist? What did he declare about colonization of the American continents? What agreement did the United States make with Russia in 1824?

EXERCISES

1. Review the four great movements in American history taking place after the War of 1812 which are described in Chapters XXVI and XXVII.

2. How does a territory become a state in the United States?

3. Write about the early life of Abraham Lincoln or Jefferson Davis. A list of books, which give fuller accounts of the life of each, will be found on page xxvi of the Appendix (References for Teachers).

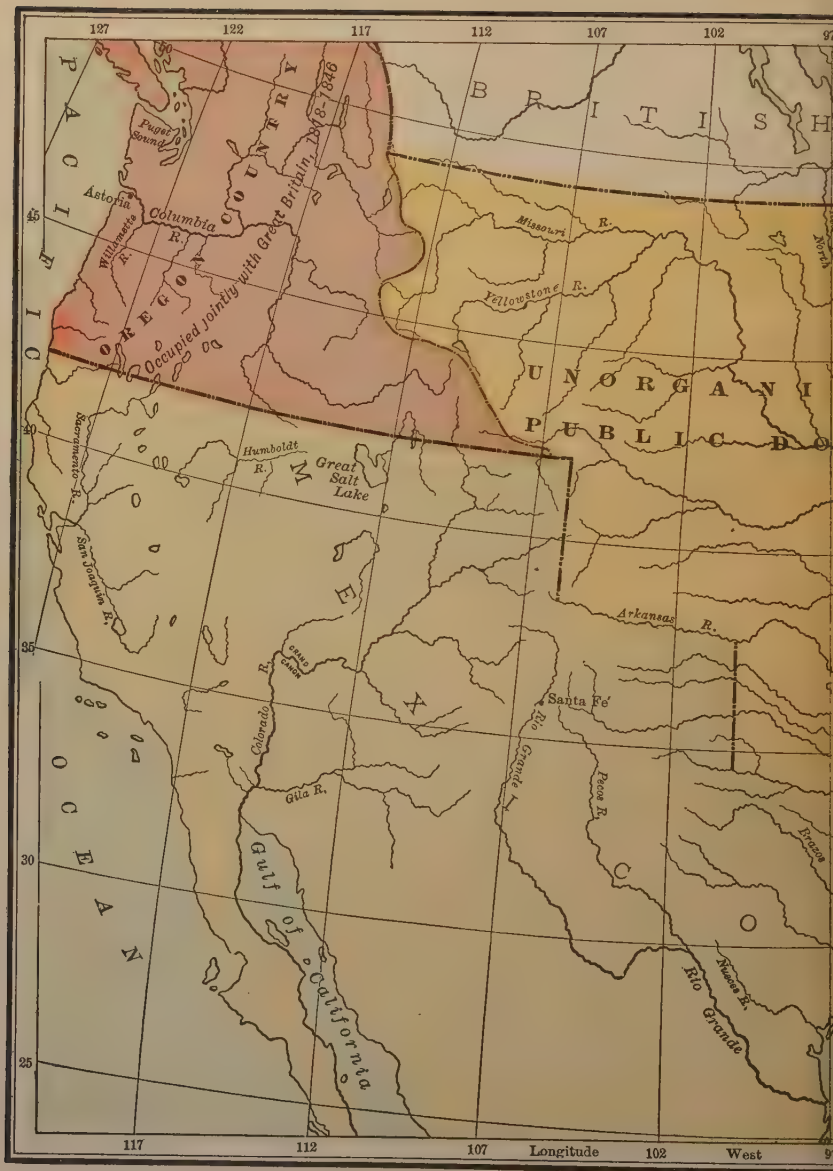
4. If the grandparents or great grandparents of any of the members of the class were pioneers at this time, such members should write a paper telling the story of their relatives.

5. Which was of the greater value — the help that France gave the United States in the Revolution, or the help that England and the United States gave the Spanish American Republics in 1823?

6. Monroe declared in the Monroe Doctrine that the colonization of the American continents was at an end. When did the colonization of the Amer-icas begin?

Important Dates:

1809. February 12, birth of Abraham Lincoln.
1819. Florida purchased from Spain.
1820. The Missouri Compromise adopted by Congress.
1823. President Monroe announces the so-called Monroe Doctrine.


127
122
117
112
107
102
PACIFIC OCEAN
BRITISH
Puget Sound
Astoria
Columbia R.
Willamette R.
OREGON COUNTRY
Occupied jointly with Great Britain, Dec. 1846
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
UNORGANI
PUBLIC DO
45
40
Sacramento R.
Humboldt R.
Great Salt Lake
San Joaquin R.
Arkansas R.
35
Grand Cañon
Colorado R.
Santa Fé
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Gila R.
30
Gulf of California
Nueces R.
25
Longitude
West

The UNITED STATES
1825
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300
POSSESSIONS
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
L. SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
L. ONTARIO
L. Erie
L. St. Clair
L. Huron
Lake of the Woods
St. Mary's R.
St. Lawrence R.
St. John R.
Penobscot R.
Kennebec R.
Connecticut R.
Hudson R.
Delaware R.
Susquehanna R.
Potomac R.
James R.
Roanoke R.
Cape Fear R.
Pedee R.
Santee R.
Savannah R.
Ogeechee R.
Altamaha R.
Chattahoochee R.
Flint R.
Appalachicola R.
Escambia R.
Perdido R.
Pearl R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Illinois R.
Wabash R.
Ohio R.
Cumberland R.
Tennessee R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Sabine R.
Trinity R.
Colorado R.
Rio Grande R.
Lake Champlain
Lake Okeechobee
Everglades
Portland
Concord
Boston
Hartford
New York
Albany
Buffalo
Toronto
Detroit
Trenton
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Baltimore
Washington
Harrisburg
Pittsburg
Erie
Richmond
Norfolk
Raleigh
Charleston
Augusta
Savannah
Milledgeville
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Mobile
New Orleans
Natchez
Nashville
Louisville
Cincinnati
Columbus
Ft. Wayne
Chicago
Peoria
Cairo
Memphis
St. Louis
Little Rock
Detroit
Michilimackinac
Green Bay
Prairie du Chien
Fond du Lac
Lake Pepin
Council Bluffs
Natchitoches
Nacogdoches
Bexar
Santa Fe
Taos
Chihuahua
Monterey
Saltillo
Matamoras
Tampico
Vera Cruz
Mexico
Acapulco
Puebla
Oregon
Columbia R.
Nootka Sound
Cape Flattery
Fuca's Straits
Vancouver's I.
Queen Charlotte's I.
Mt. St. Elias
Mt. Hood
Mt. Jefferson
Mt. Rainier
Mt. Vancouver
Mt. Regnier
Mt. Hooker
Mt. Brown
Mt. Edgecumbe
Mt. Fairweather
Mt. St. Elias
Mt. Elias
Mt. Hayden
Mt. Wrangel
Mt. Sanford
Mt. Cook
Mt. Crillon
Mt. Fairweather

CHAPTER XXVIII

GOVERNMENT BY THE PEOPLE

Changes in Government. — Changes in the method of making articles, better ways of carrying them from place to place, the growth of cities, and the rapid increase in the population of the Mississippi Valley were not the only events of the period. Important changes occurred in the political life of the people. The idea that "all men are equal" affected more then ever the manner of governing states and nation. The older families from which had been drawn the leaders in colonial times and in the early days of the Republic were no longer preferred in elections and appointments.

The Right to Vote. — When Washington became President, scarcely one-fourth of the men were allowed to vote at elections. Voters and office-holders had to be owners of property, usually of land. Even Franklin said that men who had no land should not vote. In England the right to vote had gone with ownership of land. The colonies had adopted the same practice, and the framers of the first state governments continued it. But in the new states, whether Vermont east of the Alleghanies, or Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, Indiana, and the others in the Mississippi Valley, the settlers were very much alike and were willing to treat one another so. They quickly changed the notions that they had held in the older communities. The idea of a privileged class of persons seemed as foolish as a hereditary nobility or as kings by divine right. These states, accordingly, permitted all men to vote and hold office.

The eastern states were obliged to make the same change, otherwise the stream of emigration to the West would have been even greater. The change was not accomplished without long debates and many elections, for the older leaders prophesied all sorts of terrible consequences. A few states clung to some of the established rules, Rhode Island for example, insisting that only owners of property should vote.

Religious Liberty. — Another change, which naturally accompanied manhood suffrage, was the grant of complete religious liberty. Massachusetts ceased to compel all taxpayers to support the Congregational Church. In South Carolina, Roman Catholics gained the right to vote. These are but two illustrations of a change which was general.

"Down with King Caucus." — The spirit of equality or democracy attacked still other customs. Candidates for the Presidency had been nominated by the members of Congress, those who belonged to each political party meeting in what was called a caucus. The custom gave to Congressmen an important privilege, and as they often held their places for long periods, a few men had a large influence in making presidents. A loud outcry was, therefore, raised against "King Caucus."

Many people wished to vote directly for their candidates, instead of voting for electors. Thomas H. Benton, a senator from Missouri, urged such a change. Several amendments to the Constitution were offered, but the plan failed. Two-thirds of the members of both houses of Congress and three-fourths of the states must consent to an amendment, and Benton was not able to secure the approval of so large a majority.

The reformers, however, gradually brought about two changes: (1) that the people should vote directly for electors instead of leaving their appointment to the legislatures of the states, as had usually been the rule; and (2) that the nomination should be made by a convention of delegates from the

states. It was already understood that the electors must vote for the person named by the caucus or convention.[1] In 1824 one of the candidates for President was selected by a caucus of members of Congress, but that was the last time. For a few years a mixed system went on — sometimes the nomination was the work of state legislatures, sometimes a convention of delegates within the several states. Finally, in 1832, great national conventions met for the purpose of putting candidates before the country.

The people soon discovered that the overthrow of "King Caucus" had not gained for them a greater share in the selection of presidents. They had merely handed power to a new set of masters, the party managers or "bosses."[2] Calhoun thought that the people had lost by the change and that the "bosses" were worse than the Congressmen. At least one good result came from the long discussion of methods of nominating and electing presidents: the people began to think the office the most important in the Republic.

ANDREW JACKSON
In 1830. Age 63. After the portrait by R. W. Earl

Andrew Jackson's Election, 1828. — One reason why the common people began to feel so high regard for the office was that Andrew Jackson, their idol, was chosen President in 1828. Jackson was born on the frontier in North Carolina. His parents were Scotch-

[1] The framers of the Constitution intended that the electors should choose the President, and not merely record the wishes of the voters of their states.

[2] Sometimes the party managers or "bosses" were private citizens, sometimes they were local office-holders or members of Congress.

Irish. Like all boys on the frontier, he received little schooling. Later he studied law and crossed the mountains to Nashville, then a small village. When Tennessee was admitted to the Union in 1796, Jackson was chosen its first representative in Congress. To reach Philadelphia he was obliged to ride on horse-back 800 miles, most of the way through an unsettled wilderness. His life since then had been spent chiefly in the army, where he became skilful in frontier fighting. The victory of New Orleans had made him a hero. Andrew Jackson was a typical westerner, and born leader of the common people.

BIRTHPLACE OF ANDREW JACKSON

In the presidential election of 1824 Jackson received the largest vote of any of the four candidates, but not a majority of all electoral votes. The choice of a President, therefore, belonged to the House of Representatives. Two of Jackson's rivals were John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay. Their supporters in the House united and chose Adams. Jackson's friends thought that he had been cheated, because more men voted for him than for Adams, and they prepared to make his election sure the next time. The southerners, the frontiersmen and farmers of the West, the workmen in the factory towns — the common people, most of them the new voting class — rallied to Jackson's aid. Great was their joy when they knew that their chief was victorious. It seemed to them to be the beginning of new things, and in more ways than one they were right. No election since Jefferson's had meant so much.

So great was the power which Jackson's triumph gave him that some timid politicians were afraid that the presidency might be changed into a kingship. Those who disliked his domineering ways called the period, "The reign of Andrew Jackson." For eight years, or two terms, he was President, and remained faithful to the cause of the common people.

Who Shall hold the Offices? — President Jackson and his supporters had views about office-holding which now seem unwise or even harmful. For example, they believed it dangerous to allow men to hold office a long time. They were afraid that officials would get the idea that an office was a piece of property which they owned and would grow careless about its duties. So the Jacksonians attacked long terms of office, just as people before them had attacked kingship and hereditary nobility.

Worse than this was the way they used offices to reward friends and to punish opponents. Jackson did not introduce the custom. It had been going on many years in some of the states. The men who came into power at Jackson's election demanded that the offices of the national government be distributed more freely among the common people. Shrewd political managers, with nothing else with which to pay their party followers, fell in with the idea. Jackson did not wish to turn honest and competent officials out, but he was easily persuaded that those who were "in" were incompetent rascals. To all complaints his friends replied, "To the victors belong the spoils."

New Political Parties. — Jacksonian democracy carried forward the ideas that Thomas Jefferson had taught, but went farther than he dreamed of going. Since his day the Republican party had absorbed most of his old opponents, the Federalists. Their attitude during the War of 1812 made them unpopular, and their party had melted away. The period after the war, when there was but one great party,

has been called an "Era of Good Feeling." It is hard to find the good feeling among the leaders of the day, for there were really many different factions or groups within the Republican party. Some were the followers of Adams, some of Clay, some of Calhoun, and some of Jackson. Upon Jackson's election his followers took possession of the old Jeffersonian Republican party. They kept its name a while, but were more commonly known as "Jackson men," and soon adopted the name of Democrats. The Democratic party of Jackson's day was really a new party — Jacksonian rather than Jeffersonian.

WHAT JACKSON'S OPPONENTS THOUGHT OF HIM

From a contemporary cartoon

The opponents of Jackson claimed to be the true Jeffersonian Republicans — National Republicans they were called. These men, the followers of many different leaders, were united only in a dislike for Andrew Jackson. They accused him of restoring the kind of government against which the patriots had fought in the Revolution, because he had made the office of President so powerful. For this reason they called him "King Andrew," and his followers "Tories." They took for themselves the old Revolutionary party name of Whigs. The Whigs were chiefly interested in keeping up the tariff, having the national government aid the states in building canals and roads, and in opposing Jackson and the growth of the powers of his office. Their greatest leaders were Henry Clay of Kentucky and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts.

Democracy in Europe. — These changes in political life were not peculiar to the United States. The common

people had not forgotten the ideas of equality and brotherhood proclaimed by the French Revolution, even if their rulers tried to compel them to act as if they had. In 1830 another revolution took place in France. The King, who was the younger brother of the unfortunate Louis XVI, was driven from his throne, and a cousin, Louis Philippe, was made king. Louis liked to be called the "Citizen King," and he went about the streets as an ordinary man. He also sent his sons to the public schools. He had once been a refugee in the United States, and loved to talk about the Americans to returned travelers.

General Lafayette was one of the leaders in this revolution. He would have preferred a republican government, but he was more anxious to secure political liberty than any particular form of government, and supported the new king. A new law in France about doubled the number of voters.

A still more important change occurred in England. By the "Great Reform Bill" of 1832 the English parliament abandoned its old method of representation and adopted plans more like those long used in America. The right to send members to parliament was taken from many communities with few inhabitants, which were controlled by the landowners, and it was given to the new factory cities like Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield. The right to vote was also extended greatly, though most of the workmen in the towns, and laborers everywhere, were still excluded. In neither France nor England did they go as far toward a more democratic government as in the United States, but a long step was taken in that direction.

Such changes in England meant that leadership was passing from the men who had looked upon the Americans as rebels. The new leaders were willing to acknowledge that the English colonists in America had fought the battle of colonists everywhere. These leaders would soon be ready to give full

rights of self-government to colonists like the Canadians who still remained loyal to the mother country.

QUESTIONS

1. Name five important changes that were slowly going on in the United States. What restrictions had formerly been placed on voting and holding office? Why did the new states allow all men to vote and hold office? Why did the eastern states follow their example? Illustrate changes taking place regarding religious liberty.

2. How had candidates for the presidency been nominated? What changes did Senator Benton attempt to make? What changes were finally made in electing and nominating the President? Did the people really gain much by the changes in method of nominations?

3. Who was chosen President in 1828? Why was he so popular?

4. What views did Jackson and his supporters have about office holding? Why did the party managers like the plan of short terms and passing offices about among the common people? What burden did these changes place upon the President?

5. What became of the old Federalist party? What division took place in the Jeffersonian Republican party? What name did Jackson's followers take? Why did the Whigs choose that name? Who were the greatest leaders of the Whigs?

6. What long steps toward democracy were taken in France in 1830 and in England in 1832? How would such changes in England affect the attitude of the mother country toward Canada and toward the United States?

EXERCISES

1. Learn the qualifications for voters in the state. Have these always been the same?

2. Find out the number of men in the precinct, the number who can vote, and the number who voted at the last election. Why do many men fail to vote? Can women vote?

3. How can an immigrant become a voter?

4. Learn how the President and other officers are nominated to-day. Is the method an improvement over the old one by caucus or by convention?

5. Does the President remove the postmasters when he takes office and appoint his party workers to the vacant positions? Make a list of the officers whom he still changes.

6. What classes of men were allowed to vote in the United States, and were still excluded in France and England after the changes of 1830 and 1832?

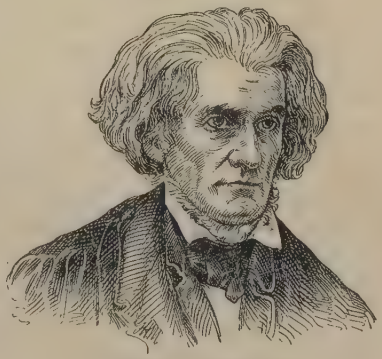
Important Dates:

1828. Jackson elected President. Jackson serves as President from 1829 until 1837.

CHAPTER XXIX

PROBLEMS OF THE NEW DEMOCRACY

Strife over Tariffs. — The growth of the national industries and the spread of population gave Andrew Jackson and his successor, Martin Van Buren, several difficult problems to solve. The first of these was the tariff. When the tariff of 1816 was adopted by Congress, leaders of the South, like Calhoun, voted for it, believing protective duties advantageous to the southern, as well as to the northern, states. The South, however, soon found that taxes on clothing and tools, things needed on the plantations, were a serious burden. Cotton did not require protection by a tariff, because it was not imported, but exported. The southern leaders concluded that they were taxed for the benefit of the North. Matters were made worse when the extension of the plantation system, especially in the new Southwest, led to over-production of cotton and to low prices.



JOHN C. CALHOUN

The Idea of Nullification. — In the opposition to the tariff Calhoun, who was Vice-President, became the spokesman of the South. He had come to the conclusion that the new political methods, which were introduced mainly by the Jack-

sonians, strengthened the central government too much, destroying the original plan according to which one set of powers acted as a check upon another. To him the party managers seemed to be gaining power in every direction through the choice of presidential electors directly by the voters, the convention system of nominating the President, and the spoils system, which was used to pay faithful party followers. Calhoun, therefore, fell back upon the old idea that the states, rather than the Supreme Court, were final judges of what the national government had a right to do.

In 1832 South Carolina, influenced by Calhoun, called a state convention which declared the tariff acts null and void. This meant that the national officers could not collect duties in the ports of South Carolina, and that if the United States used force, the state would withdraw from the Union.

Two years before this a great debate on the questions of states' rights had taken place in the United States Senate. Senator Hayne of South Carolina defended the ideas of Calhoun, and Senator Webster of Massachusetts argued that the powers of the national government were supreme. Webster closed one of his speeches with the exclamation, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable." In these words he uttered what was in the hearts of multitudes, especially of the settlers of the newer western states.

Jackson and South Carolina. — Jackson had no special liking for the tariff, but he loved the Union as intensely as Webster. He denied that a state could set aside a law of the United States merely because it disliked the law. If war should become necessary, he declared that in forty days he would have 40,000 men in South Carolina. Men knew that he would make his words good. Henry Clay wished to keep Jackson from leading an army into South Carolina, and suggested a compromise in Congress. By it the tariff was gradually reduced to the level of 1816. Both sides

claimed the victory, the United States because it had forced South Carolina to repeal its declaration against a tariff act, with all it had said about states' rights; South Carolina because it had forced Congress to lower the duties on imports.

More Talk of Nullification. — South Carolina was not the only state where men talked of nullifying national laws. The United States had a dispute with Great Britain about the northeastern boundary. The King of the Netherlands was asked to act as an arbitrator, and in 1831 recommended that the United States give up part of the territory on the borders of Maine. Maine and Massachusetts were opposed to the plan of settlement, for it would have taken from Maine territory that she claimed and from Massachusetts the ownership of lands in the same territory. Both declared through their legislatures that the United States had no power to cede any portion of a state without its consent. They did not say that they would withdraw from the Union or fight if the United States accepted the decision of the King of the Netherlands, but that they would treat the decision as null and void. All trouble between the United States and the two northeastern states was avoided by setting aside the decision of the arbitrator and leaving the question of the boundary unsettled.

MAP SHOWING DISPUTED BOUNDARY OF MAINE

to pay its expenses. How the tariff should also be used to give aid to American industries was a hard question. Other questions, equally hard, faced the legislators and officers of the states. How much was it safe to expend on roads, canals, and other internal improvements? Should the state permit banks to issue paper money, when the states themselves were forbidden by the Constitution to issue such money?

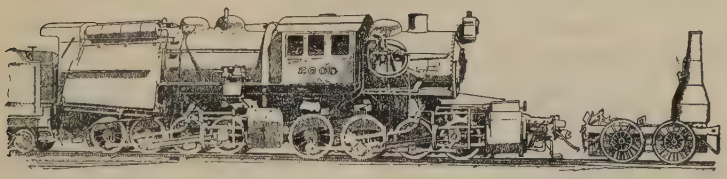
Still other questions faced the business men of the country, especially of the West. Was it wise to buy land for town sites, lay out streets and lots, on the chance that part of the great stream of emigration would turn in their direction and enrich those who were on the ground first? Should bankers lend money to men who would have nothing to pay the debt unless the town lots were bought speedily and the canals had a good deal of freight to carry? Was it right for a bank to issue paper money with very little coin in its vaults with which to redeem the notes?

Many of the canals were badly located and bound to fail. The main reason why they should have been planned more cautiously was the invention of the railroad and the locomotive. Railroads did not put an end to the usefulness of canals like the Erie, but they soon made many others unprofitable, causing the money expended upon them to become a total loss.

The Locomotive.—No invention has had greater influence on American history than that of the locomotive. For this the world is chiefly indebted to George Stephenson, the son of an English laborer. The story is told that in 1807 he wished to go to America, but found that he was too poor to pay his passage. As an engineer at a coal mine he learned all about the Watt steam-engine. Stephenson thought something like it could be used on the railroads which were being built for horse-cars. About 1814 he invented his first locomotive,

— a rough, noisy, weak machine, — but he proved that it could draw cars for every-day business. By 1825 he was able to secure its introduction in place of horse-power on the new railroads, which were short lines about a dozen miles in length.

Introduction of the Locomotive in the United States. — The Erie Canal proved of so great benefit to business in New York City that other cities were anxious about their share



THE FIRST LOCOMOTIVE BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES
Drawn on the same scale as the modern locomotive shown behind it

of the western trade. Charleston, South Carolina, was the first to use one of the new locomotives on a railroad some six miles long. This was in 1830. Four years later the line was extended westward 137 miles to the Savannah River near Augusta. Meanwhile the owners of the short horse-car lines built from Baltimore and Philadelphia toward the West adopted the new power.[1]

The locomotives were improved and gradually took the place of horses on all railroads. At first the locomotives could not climb steep grades or run very swiftly. Fourteen

[1] Peter Cooper built a locomotive for the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, as the Baltimore line was called, and because it was small he called it the "Tom Thumb." Men had doubted whether a locomotive could run around curves without leaving the track. Cooper proved that his could round even sharp curves. A race with a horse-car ended the trial trip on the double track near Baltimore. The horse started quicker, but the puffing engine soon gained headway and caught up with the horse. Then the race was neck and neck with the iron steed gaining as the horse grew tired, but a pulley slipped off the engine and the horse-car finished first.

or fifteen miles an hour was the best they could do. Railroad builders were slow in learning how to build the tracks in order to endure hard usage. At the hills the locomotives stopped, and stationary engines with ropes dragged the cars up an inclined plane to the top, where another locomotive took the cars on the journey. Philadelphia used this system on part of the state-highway to Pittsburgh, which was built to offset the advantage given to New York by the Erie Canal.

PIONEER
FAST LINE,
BY RAIL ROAD CARS AND CANAL PACKETS,
From Philadelphia to Pittsburgh,
THROUGH IN 3½ DAYS:
AND BY STEAM BOATS, CARRYING THE UNITED STATES MAIL,
From PITTSBURGH to LOUISVILLE.
Starts every morning, from the corner of Broad & Race St.
Passengers for Cincinnati, Louisville, Natchez, Nashville, St. Louis, &c.
OFFICE, N E. CORNER OF FOURTH AND CHESNUT ST.
A. B CUMMINGS, Agent.

ADVERTISEMENT SHOWING METHOD OF TRAVEL FROM PHILADELPHIA TO PITTSBURGH IN 1837
Reduced facsimile

Other Early Railroads. — Other regions became eager to have railroads. New York business men began short lines parallel to the Erie Canal. In 1841 Boston men began a railroad which was soon to reach Albany. The Baltimore and Ohio was steadily extended westward. By 1840 nearly 3,000 miles of railway had been built in the United States. It was, however, another ten years before the great railway era opened.

Cost of Railroads and Canals. — Some of the states which had borrowed money to build canals borrowed equally great sums to build railroads. Before 1838 Illinois borrowed for this purpose $7,400,000, nearly as much as New York and

Pennsylvania together had borrowed. Illinois at that time was a frontier state, rich in land, but with only little money. Chicago was still a village. The states together had already borrowed for canals and railroads over $100,000,000. The difficulty was that everybody had borrowed too much. How would Jackson treat the situation?

AN EARLY RAILROAD TRAIN
From an old print

Jackson destroys the Bank of the United States.—In 1816 a new Bank of the United States had been given a charter for twenty years. It was managed in such a way that it was always able to pay its notes in gold or silver. For this reason business men preferred its notes to the notes of the small state banks which sometimes were not paid. The state banks, therefore, wished to put an end to the Bank of the United States, which they said was trying to get all the business. The western farmers and the eastern workingmen also feared and hated the Bank. Jackson shared their feelings, mainly because he suspected that the Bank officials and their friends were meddling in politics and trying to control the government. His second campaign, in 1832, was fought on the question as to whether or not the Bank should be permitted to continue.[1] As he won, the Bank was obliged to close its

[1] The Bank secured a charter from Pennsylvania and continued to do business as a state bank until it failed in 1841.

relations with the United States by the time the charter ran out.

Getting Rich Quickly. — An era of unregulated or "wild cat" banking now set in. The "Get-rich-quick" fever seized nearly everyone. The state banks, as the states did before the new Constitution forbade it, issued vast quantities of paper money. In 1834 the amount was $94,000,000, and in 1837 $149,000,000. A measure which Jackson adopted made the trouble worse. He deposited government money, formerly deposited in the Bank of the United States, in other banks. These banks, which his enemies called "pet" banks, became even more reckless in lending money. Seeing that the fever of speculation had reached the danger point, the government officials tried to reduce it by medicine which nearly killed the patient.

Panic of 1837. — The remedy was an announcement that the government would receive in payment for land only gold and silver. Buyers had been permitted to pay in the notes of the state banks. The change meant that the little coin that was in the vaults of the state banks might be drawn out and that their notes would be less likely to be paid than before. At the same time the eastern banks were affected by business depression in England. Englishmen tried to collect their loans and ceased buying cotton, so that the loans must be paid, if at all, in coin. Now everyone who had lent began to fear the loss of his money and called upon borrowers to pay. The borrowers had not realized their dreams of wealth and had little with which to pay. Happily for Jackson, the crash did not come until his successor, Van Buren, had been inaugurated. Then banks, business houses, and factories failed, and thousands of workmen were thrown out of employment. It was five years before the country recovered from the after-effects of its first great fever of speculation.

Trade Unions. — None were affected more by the prosperous times of Jackson's administration or by the miseries of Van Buren's than the workingmen. They were now numerous enough in the larger cities and factory towns to form trade societies and general trade unions. The men of each trade formed a trade society; as, for example, the tailors or printers or shoemakers. Several trade societies of the same place formed together a general trade union.

According to English laws, which were not repealed until 1825, laborers who combined to gain high wages or to secure other benefits, especially by means of strikes, should be severely punished. The officials and judges in the United States at first treated the trade societies in the same way, sending their members to jail or fining them heavily. As the societies multiplied, this practice was abandoned.

What the Workingmen were seeking. — The workingmen's unions were, of course, interested in securing shorter hours of work and higher wages. They wished also to abolish the old system of imprisonment for debt and to obtain a general system of free public schools.

The unions then as now brought on strikes, and sometimes successfully bargained with their employers. Men who could say to their employers, "Raise our wages, or we will go to the West and take up farms," had an advantage that no European laborers possessed. The fact that there was such an abundance of cheap land had a twofold effect on American life: (1) intelligent and thrifty workmen were able to choose between the wages offered and the western farm, and (2) so many went West that the trade societies did not grow very strong.

In some trades the employees were able to obtain a working day of ten hours. When hard times came on with the panic of 1837, laborers found that work was the thing

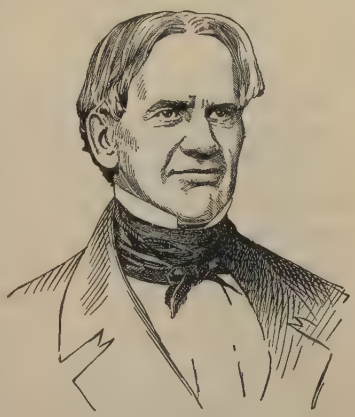
they needed most. President Van Buren, like Jackson, was especially interested in their demands, and in 1840 he fixed ten hours as the length of day for employees of the government, thus setting a good example to private employers.

The Humanitarians. — The workingmen found the ballot their most useful weapon. In several cities they even formed separate political parties, but they usually voted with the Democratic party. They found allies in a group of men who took a deep interest in the welfare of the down-trodden and suffering everywhere. It was a period when intelligent men in England and Europe as well as America were growing more humane. In 1834 the "reformed" English parliament abolished slavery throughout the British empire. The leaders in this movement may be called humanitarians. Prominent among them in the United States were William Ellery Channing, Horace Mann, and William Lloyd Garrison. Garrison founded a paper in Boston in 1831 and devoted his life to denouncing the system of slave labor and calling for its immediate abolition. Few people were won over by his violent language, or as yet took any great interest in the subject.

Abolition of Imprisonment for Debt. — By 1840 the workingmen and humanitarians together brought to an end imprisonment for debt, a cruel practice which had come over from Europe. When Jackson became President 75,000 persons were sent to jail as debtors every year. In Philadelphia forty men were imprisoned for owing about sixty cents each. To make matters worse, the states as a rule failed to furnish either food or clothing or fuel to the prisoners. They depended upon gifts for these, if their families could not care for them. Debtors were huddled together in the prisons with the worst criminals.

Free Elementary Schools. — The greatest triumph of the

humanitarians, the workingmen, and the farmers of the western states was the establishment of a system of schools, supported by taxation, in nearly every state East and West. The New England states had long before this tried to provide free schools for all boys. But they were only partially successful. Elsewhere the "free schools" were for the children of the very poor and were really nothing more than "pauper schools." In most places the parents taught their own children or engaged a tutor for them, if they could afford one.



HORACE MANN

The workingmen demanded free schools, supported out of taxes, for rich and poor alike. What is more, they kept the subject foremost and, with the help of educational reformers like Horace Mann, were generally successful. State after state voted that taxes should be used to establish elementary schools. The southern states, having no great body of free workingmen to ask for free schools, were an exception. These states, except South Carolina and North Carolina, made little effort to establish such schools, but continued to depend on family tutors or small private schools. In the West the states were aided by the wise system begun by the Congress of the Confederation of giving one section in each township for the benefit of the common schools.

Girls admitted. — In colonial days girls were seldom admitted to the town schools, and then only at odd times when the boys were not in school. One writer says, "In all my school days, which ended in 1801, I never saw but three females in public schools, and they were only there in the

afternoon to learn to write." [1] A more liberal attitude prevailed soon after this writer's school days closed. The towns which established free public schools for boys also opened them to girls. In a few of the older cities on the coast separate schools were established for the girls. But most towns were too poor to build two schools. Even in those which succeeded, the girls' school was not as good as that of the boys.

High Schools. — The new interest in education led quickly to the founding of free high schools.[2] Boston had one in 1821, Philadelphia in 1839, and the number increased rapidly with each year. Many of the older towns had private academies, and did not find it necessary to start new schools. This was especially true where the old academies had money enough so that they could give a free education to the children of the town. Here too some cities built separate high schools for boys and girls, but the smaller and newer towns generally admitted the girls to the boys' high school as the better arrangement.

Colleges and Universities. — Places of higher education also increased with the spread of the population west of the Alleghanies and with the growing prosperity of the whole country. The churches were especially active in establishing colleges for the frontier communities. The movement did not stop here. North Carolina in 1789 and South Carolina in 1801 had begun the practice of establishing a university at state expense. With the organization of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Illinois, the United States adopted the plan of giving to each new state or territory lands, from the sale of

[1] There were many small private schools for girls, but few could afford to attend them.

[2] See page 68. A few schools which were really high schools had been established in colonial days, but usually boys prepared for college at the private academies.

which they were to start a state university.[1] In 1819, chiefly through the influence of Jefferson, Virginia also established a university. These institutions had very small resources, and were little more than high schools.

None of the new colleges admitted women, nor in fact did any of the older eastern colleges.[2] Many people thought that women should confine their studies to elementary subjects and their activities to the affairs of the home, and even more doubted the ability of women to succeed in the studies of the college. But the founders of Oberlin College believed that women should have the same opportunity as men, and in 1833 admitted both on the same terms. The movement for the education of women spread, at first chiefly through the founding of seminaries. Of these the most famous were the Mount Holyoke Seminary, established by Mary Lyon at South Hadley, Massachusetts, and the Troy Female Seminary by Emma Willard at Troy, New York.

MARY LYON

QUESTIONS

1. What difficult problem did Jackson have to face? Why had the South at first supported a protective tariff? Why did it later oppose one? What authority did Calhoun think should be the final judge of the powers of the national government?

2. What step did South Carolina take in 1832? What different views did Calhoun and Webster hold about the Union? What did Jackson say he would

[1] This plan was first used by the United States in the sale of land to the Ohio Company, in 1787, giving two townships for a university.

[2] The University of Iowa, founded in 1856, was the first state university to open its doors to women.

do if South Carolina resisted a law of the United States? What was Clay's compromise? Why did both parties to the dispute think they had won?

3. Where else did men talk about nullifying national acts? How was trouble with the northeastern states avoided?

4. What other difficult question did Jackson have to meet?

5. Why was the investment of so much money in canals a mistake? Who invented the locomotive? Where was it first used in the United States? What things were the early locomotives unable to do which the improved later ones could do?

6. What cities soon had railroads? Why did the building of railroads give the states much trouble?

7. Why was the Bank of the United States unpopular? How did it come to an end? Why did destroying the bank bring on "wild-cat" banking?

8. What measure did Jackson adopt which made the "get-rich-quick" fever worse? What remedy did Jackson try next? How did the panic of 1837 affect the country?

9. Describe the organization of the workingmen. How did the government at first deal with such organizations? What were the unions seeking to do? What two great reforms did working people bring about with the help of reformers?

10. How were the western states aided in founding public schools? What new class was admitted into the schools? Why did most towns admit boys and girls to the same school? What higher school did the towns begin establishing a little later?

11. How did the new states secure colleges and universities? Which was the first state to have a university of its own? Which was the first college to admit women on the same terms as men?

EXERCISES

1. Do we have a protective tariff to-day? Prepare a list of articles protected by import duties.

2. The members of the class should learn when the first railroad was built in their region. Did the state, the county, the township, or the town help build it?

3. Learn about some local trade union, when it was founded, its size, and objects.

4. What caused the great panic of 1837?

5. What schools of higher education does the state support? Where are they located? When were they founded? Do they admit both men and women?

6. The members of the class should select the event mentioned in this chapter which they think the most important, giving the reasons why they think it so important.

CHAPTER XXX

NEIGHBORING COUNTRIES BRING ON NEW QUESTIONS

The Spaniards in Texas. — The Republic of Mexico bordered the United States on the southwest. Texas was the nearest of its provinces. The Spanish had known of Texas since Coronado's famous journey, but had done almost nothing toward its settlement. Enterprising priests and their helpers had built up several Indian mission villages, as they did in New Mexico and California, where they taught the Indians the Catholic religion and the methods of work of civilized men. The Indians did not like restraint and often broke away, resuming their old nomadic life. The Spanish explorers in Texas were not followed by eager settlers as explorers were in the United States. Two or three small white settlements, the chief one at San Antonio, formed the only centers of Spanish colonization.

Pioneers open a New Region for Americans. — Moses Austin and his son Stephen were the pioneers who prepared the way for the settlement of Texas. Moses Austin had moved from his birthplace in Connecticut to Pennsylvania, and then to western Virginia, and on to Missouri, where he founded a colony on what was still foreign soil. With the restlessness of the pioneer, he and his son made plans for another colony in Texas. Frontiersmen were crowding to the western borders of the United States in search of land. Texas offered them all that was desired — fertile land, a mild and healthful climate, and abundant waterways for travel and trade.

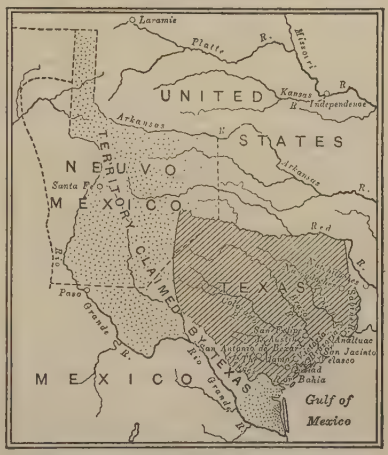
In 1820 the Austins applied for permission to settle in Texas and for grants of land. The Mexicans, who became independent the following year, made generous terms. The Austins had asked for six hundred and forty acres of land for each head of a family. They were given seven times as much, with an additional allowance for the wife, children, and slaves of each family. No wonder that the pioneers found it easy to persuade men to go to the new west! Moses Austin died

San Antonio in 1848

before the colonists were ready to start for the new lands, but his son carried out the plan. The little Spanish settlements of about 3,000 were increased fourfold in less than seven years. This was only the beginning. Most of the new settlers were from the United States, and chiefly, too, from the southern part. Many of them were planters with slaves, who planned to raise cotton. Thus the slave system spread farther westward.

Another War of Independence. — The people of Texas soon had trouble with the government of Mexico. In many ways it was the old story of discontent, revolution, and final independence. The Mexicans tried to stop immigration from the United States, abolished slavery, and withdrew nearly all the grants of land. The Texans paid no attention to these

laws, kept the frontier open by force, and continued to bring in slaves. A war for independence followed. In this David Crockett, a famous frontiersman, lost his life. Volunteers poured in from the southern states to help the Texans. Their leader was General Sam Houston, a friend of Andrew Jackson. In 1836 Houston won a decisive victory at San Jacinto, capturing the President of Mexico and destroying his entire army. This ended the war. Texas adopted a form of government resembling that of the United States. It contained, however, provisions expressly forbidding the emancipation of slaves.



MAP OF THE REPUBLIC OF TEXAS
Showing territory claimed by Texas.

The Republic of Texas, 1836-45. — The new republic claimed the territory lying along the Gulf coast from the borders of the United States to the Rio Grande River. It was large enough to contain 45 states like Massachusetts, or larger than Great Britain and France taken together. Mexico did not acknowledge that Texas was independent, much less that its boundaries extended to the Rio Grande. But Texas was in no more danger of being reconquered by Mexico than Mexico and the other Spanish American republics were of being reconquered by Spain.

Shall Texas be annexed? — In 1836 the people of Texas asked to be admitted into the Union as a state. A few years earlier every section of the United States had wanted to acquire Texas. Presidents Adams and Jackson had in turn tried to purchase it from Mexico. Now the request of Texas

was rejected. Since the quarrel in Congress over slavery in the Louisiana Territory and the Missouri Compromise, many northern people were unwilling to admit any territory where slave laborers could work profitably. Others were anxious to avoid further dispute over the subject. Besides, President Van Buren thought that the United States ought not to take territory from a friendly neighbor, for Mexico continued to claim Texas. There the matter rested for several years. Mexico, however, made no serious effort to reconquer her lost province.

Our Canadian Neighbors secure Self-Government. — The war of Texas for independence was scarcely over when a struggle broke out in Canada. In Lower Canada, or the Province of Quebec — the old French colony — a large majority of the people were descendants of the original French population. Upper Canada, now Ontario, had been settled by English-speaking people from the United States and Great Britain. In both Canadas British officials, supported by the older British families, governed. The French and the recent immigrants were left out. In 1837 the French took up arms. Some of their leaders hoped to establish an independent republic at Quebec. A few of the Upper Canadians also rose in rebellion, seeking to secure a share in the government. Both rebellions were put down, but England took warning, doubtless recalling the manner in which she had lost thirteen colonies in America. The two Canadian provinces were united, and then permitted to govern themselves. In name they were still under the English crown; in fact they formed a free republic. The other British colonies in America — Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island — as well as other English colonies in Australia and South Africa soon gained the same privileges without a struggle.

The Westward Movement in Canada. — Canada, as well as the United States, had a westward movement. While the

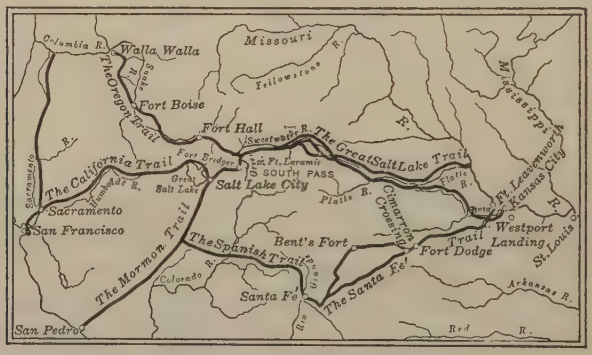
Quebec and Montreal regions remained chiefly French, thousands of immigrants from the British Isles went annually to Upper Canada. Others left their small or worn-out farms in New England, New York, or Pennsylvania, and moved across the border. The nearness and cheapness of the lands attracted many who dreaded the longer journey into the Mississippi Valley. The same steady stream of pioneers pushed to the frontier on each side of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. Canals were built around the falls in the St. Lawrence, and the Welland Canal between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario made the north shore as accessible to the sea by way of Quebec, as the south was by the Erie Canal through New York.

The Hudson Bay Company in the Northwest. — The settlers never went far from the St. Lawrence waterway. The great Northwest was still unsettled — the haunt of the trapper and the fur trader. The lonely stations of the Hudson Bay Company stretched from the outskirts of Upper Canada to Hudson Bay and Alaska and Oregon. The company's officers opposed settlement, for that would disturb the work of the trapper and the Indian trader. But they had little fear for the security of their vast domain. Certainly no one then dreamed of farming in the cold northern land. The only signs of coming conflict with the pioneer were on the Columbia River in Oregon.

Trail Makers. — In America land-seeking never ceased. Pioneers followed the trail of the Indian and the trapper, and carried civilization into Arkansas, Missouri, and Iowa. In the Rocky Mountains, fur traders from St. Louis were the advance guard. As a century earlier such men had made their way through the Alleghanies into Ohio and Kentucky, they now marked out trails across the prairies and found the passes through the Rocky Mountain barrier. The Oregon Trail followed the Missouri and the Platte Rivers, across the

mountains at South Pass into Oregon. At Westport Landing on the Missouri River, now Kansas City, a trail started which extended 700 miles across the prairies to Sante Fé. A third, the California Trail, branched from the Oregon Trail.

On the Oregon Trail. — The boldest pioneers in the United States followed the Oregon Trail to Oregon. Missionaries to the Indians entered soon after the trappers and traders,



THE PRINCIPAL WESTERN TRAILS

and then settlers entered. Many men went out of pure love of adventure, as one quaintly said, "Because the thing wasn't fenced and nobody dared to keep 'em out." For whatever reason they migrated to Oregon, they were making it real American soil more rapidly than the Hudson Bay Company was making it English.

For protection against the Indians the emigrants journeyed in caravans. Each family traveled with its household goods in a large canvas-covered wagon, called a prairie schooner, much like the Conestoga wagon of the earlier frontier. Riding horses were taken for use on the way, and cattle for stock in the new country. Each man had his duties as scout, hunter, or watchman for the party. The caravan camped at night where water and grazing land could be found, with

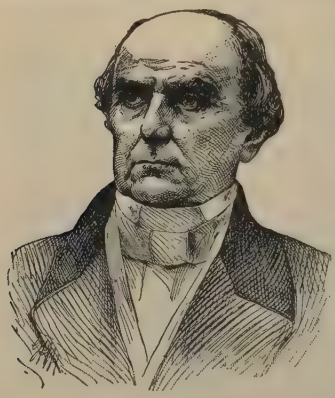
wagons drawn up like a circular fort. By day they moved slowly over the prairies and the mountain trails. Such a pilgrimage lasted three or four months. Births and weddings and deaths were frequent interruptions of such little migrating worlds. Francis Parkman has told the story of life on the Oregon Trail as he saw it in 1846.

PASS THROUGH THE MOUNTAINS ON THE OREGON TRAIL
Sweetwater Gap

Americans settle Oregon. — In 1843 the settlers in Oregon, in true pioneer style, formed a government for themselves and so laid the foundations for later states in the Far West. Explorers, missionaries, and pioneers had seemingly won southern Oregon, at least, for the United States. Both England and the United States claimed the whole territory from California to Alaska, and for the time being held it jointly. A few American statesmen thought that nature had fixed the Rocky Mountains, bordered as they were with deserts of sand, as the final western limit. They scoffed at the settlement of Oregon and opposed its annexation. Others held a different opinion. Senator Thomas Benton, himself a pioneer of Missouri, championed the cause of Oregon in Congress. He had great faith in the future of the West, even to the shores of the Pacific. The majority of the American people agreed with him. They even talked about war with

England, asserting that they must have all the territory south of the parallel 54° 40′ "or fight."

Boundary Disputes. — John Tyler was then President. He had been elected as Vice-President, but General William Henry Harrison, the Whig candidate who had won the election of 1840, died within a month after his inauguration. Tyler had more sympathy with the Democrats than with the Whigs. The only Whig who remained in his cabinet was Webster. In 1842 Webster signed a treaty with the British minister Ashburton settling the boundary dispute on the northern border of Maine. Like most agreements of that kind, the treaty was a compromise, each side giving up its extreme claims. No progress was made in deciding the Oregon question.



DANIEL WEBSTER

On the question of Texas, Webster and Tyler did not agree, for Tyler was anxious to annex Texas. Calhoun was, accordingly, made Secretary of State, and he signed a treaty of annexation with Texas. When it was sent to the Senate for approval, the senators voted against it 35 to 16. This made the question an issue in the election of 1844. Clay, the Whig candidate, had been opposed to annexation, while the platform of James K. Polk, the Democratic candidate, declared not only that Texas should be annexed, but also that the whole of Oregon to the parallel 54° 40′ should be held. Polk wished, furthermore, to gain California. He was successful in the election, although he had only 40,000 votes more than Clay. This meant that Texas would surely be annexed, and Oregon and California, too, if Polk could find a way to obtain them.

QUESTIONS

1. What had the Spaniards done toward colonizing Texas? What American formed a plan for the settlement of Texas? What terms was he able to obtain from Mexico? Why were the Mexicans so liberal? What success had the Austins?

2. What were the causes of the Texan war of independence? How long did Texas remain an independent republic? Why was the request of Texas for annexation at first rejected by the United States?

3. What caused the rebellion in Canada in 1837? What changes did Great Britain make in the government of Canada? Where else were liberal privileges of government allowed?

4. Describe the westward movement in Canada. From what parts of the United States did emigrants go to Canada? Where did they settle? Why did they go there in preference to the western part of the United States?

5. What region did the Hudson Bay Company occupy? Where were the fur traders coming into conflict with the pioneers?

6. What new barrier did the trail-makers pass? What trails did they make?

7. Describe emigration over the Oregon Trail. What step toward permanent occupation did the Oregon settlers take in 1843?

8. What arrangement did the United States have with England about Oregon? What opinion did Americans have of the country?

9. How was the northeastern boundary dispute with England finally settled?

10. What was the main issue in the presidential election of 1844? What did Polk and his party wish to do?

EXERCISES

1. Review the northward movement of Spanish settlers from Mexico. See pages 226–227.

2. Compare the reasons for seeking independence in the three Revolutions, (1) Texan, (2) Spanish American, and (3) The English Colonies, pages 164, 178, 318–319.

3. Prepare a map of Texas, on the same scale as that of Texas in any geography, and place it on a map of the United States with the center on Nashville. What part of the larger map does the map of Texas cover? Compare the area and population of Texas with that of Japan.

Important Dates:

1842. The United States and Great Britain peaceably settle the northeastern boundary dispute.

CHAPTER XXXI

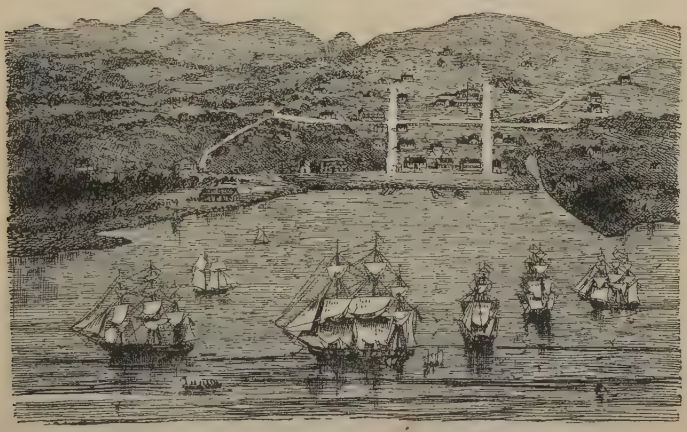
HOW THE UNITED STATES WON THE PACIFIC COAST

Annexation of Texas. — The Democrats, victorious in the election of 1844, did not wait until Polk was inaugurated before carrying through the annexation of Texas. Some of them believed the rumors which were flying about that England was preparing to acquire California and possibly Texas. As they did not have votes enough in the Senate to ratify a treaty of annexation with the Republic of Texas, they adopted the plan of annexing it by a resolution passed both by the House of Representatives and the Senate. The vote in the Senate was close — 27 to 25. The resolution was passed March 1, 1845, and was accepted by Texas in December.

Annexation alone would probably not have brought on a war with Mexico, but Polk had other plans which did. He insisted that the Rio Grande River, instead of the Nueces River, was the southern boundary of the new state. He also supported the Texans in claiming that Texas included at least part of New Mexico. Furthermore, he meant to have California, by purchase, if possible, but at all events to have it.

The California Question. — California in 1845 was an outlying, neglected province of Mexico. Its missions had fallen into decay and most of the Indians had left the mission villages. The inhabitants were mainly Spaniards and Mexicans occupied in raising cattle. California was worth much more than the $25,000,000 Polk was ready to give, but that was not the reason why the Mexicans did not wish to sell.

When Polk sent a special agent to bargain with them, they would not receive him and began to prepare for war. Polk now determined to seize the territory between the Nueces and the Rio Grande. He also planned to ask Congress to declare war because the Mexicans would not receive his representative. He had a real grievance in the long delay of



View of San Francisco in 1847
With American ships in the harbor

the Mexicans to pay damages for American property which they had destroyed during the civil wars since the overthrow of the Spanish government.

Outbreak of War. — The Mexicans soon gave him a better excuse. When General Zachary Taylor, upon Polk's orders, advanced to the banks of the Rio Grande, the Mexicans attacked him. As soon as Polk heard of the attack he placed the blame for war upon the Mexicans, declaring in a message to Congress that, "Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory, and shed American blood upon the American soil." Congress did not declare war upon Mexico, but adopted an act "for the prosecution

of the existing war." The anti-slavery men were violently opposed to the war, because they believed its purpose was to add more territory in which slaves could be held.

The Oregon Compromise. — As soon as Polk knew that he was likely to have a war with Mexico on his hands, he was willing to give up the extreme claims of the United States in the dispute with Great Britain over Oregon. If he insisted on demanding, as his party had done in the recent election, "54° 40′ or fight," he might have drawn the country into a war with England, and that was not the same as a war with Mexico. Polk, therefore, quietly offered to accept the 49th parallel as the dividing line. This parallel was the northern boundary of the United States east of the Rocky Mountains. The same offer had been made several times since 1818, but the English had not been ready to accept it. The treaty was made in June, 1846. The bargain was fair to both sides and a wise settlement of the dispute. The territory included the present states of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho.

THE OREGON COMPROMISE

The War with Mexico, 1846-47. — The war with Mexico lasted less than two years, though this was longer than Polk had expected. General Taylor took possession of the sparsely settled provinces of northern Mexico after hard fighting at Monterey and Buena Vista. General Kearny led a smaller force from Fort Leavenworth over the Sante Fé Trail to California, seizing New Mexico on the way. He found

California already in the hands of an American naval force. It could hardly be called the conquest of California, for there was no Mexican army to conquer and the Californians offered little resistance.

In 1847 Polk sent General Winfield Scott to make a direct

Map of the Mexican War

attack on the capital of Mexico. Scott followed closely the route of Cortés into the heart of the country. The natives outnumbered the invaders and fought with all the fury of the Aztecs, but the better organization, discipline, and leadership of the American troops won. The ancient capital of Mexico was taken and the last army of resistance broken up.

Terms of Peace with Mexico, 1848. — In 1848 Polk made his own terms of peace with the feeble government which was left in Mexico. Many urged that all of Mexico be annexed, but Polk was satisfied to leave the unfortunate republic independent, although humiliated and crippled. He compelled the Mexican government to acknowledge that the Rio Grande River was the boundary of Texas and to give up New Mexico and California. He had been ready to pay something for this territory, and he now agreed to give

Sacramento in 1848

$15,000,000 directly, besides $3,500,000 to those Americans who claimed damages from Mexico.[1]

Discovery of Gold in California, 1848. — One part of the new territory awakened immediate interest. A few days before Mexico agreed to the terms of peace, gold was discovered in California. Some laborers engaged in building a sawmill in the Sacramento Valley turned up the earth and found yellow grains which proved to be gold. They soon discovered more, widely scattered in the sand. The news spread. Sawmills, farms, and shops lost their interest for the settlers of

[1] Trouble arose over the location of the boundary between the Rio Grande and the Colorado Rivers, and in 1853 the United States avoided war by purchasing from Mexico a strip of territory south of the Gila River. It was called the Gadsden Purchase from James Gadsden, who was the purchasing agent.

California. All were abandoned. Even the courts were closed for want of anybody to attend them. A ship which came to anchor in San Francisco Bay was immediately deserted by the crew. The captain saw nothing better to do and set off for the diggings, leaving his ship under the care of his wife. Within a year $5,000,000 worth of gold had been taken out and during the next ten years nearly one hundred times as much. Many of the American people, therefore, looked upon the war with Mexico as a piece of good fortune.

"The Forty-Niners." — The discovery of gold in California gave the westward movement a new turn. The adventurers who went out the next year, the "Forty-niners," were

THE OVERLAND ROUTE TO CALIFORNIA

more like the Argonauts of old or De Soto's men seeking the El Dorado in North America than the other pioneers. Emigrants from Europe and from the eastern states sailed around Cape Horn or crossed the Isthmus of Panama. Those who went by the Isthmus of Panama rode mules across the narrow pass, braving the dangers of tropical fever and of robber bands. Steamboats, which were just coming into use for long voyages, found crowds at New York and Panama clamoring for passage.

The favorite route for most American immigrants started on the Missouri and followed the Oregon Trail and its branch to California. Caravans of prairie schooners, cavalcades of horsemen, the poorer adventurers afoot, dotted the trail on the desert plains. Their number made the Oregon migration seem small by comparison. On the trail the "Forty-

niners" passed Salt Lake where the Mormons,[1] a new religious sect, were irrigating the sage-brush plain and turning it into fertile farm-land. They had discovered the true source of wealth as the Californians were later to learn.

A Forty-Niner

A few of the "Forty-niners" found fortunes, but most of them made barely enough to pay their expenses, and all suffered hardships in fever-ridden, half-famished camps. Prices rose faster than gold could be dug to meet them. Spades and shovels were $10 apiece; a shirt cost $40; a candle, $3; a barrel of pork, $200. The average profit in digging gold never exceeded $1,000 a year.

The discovery of gold affected many persons besides the miners who went to California. It increased the amount of money. Business men could borrow on easier terms for their enterprises. The consequence was a new period of feverish activity, like that which followed the building of the National Road, the Erie Canal, and the first railroads.

California Ready to become a State. — The population of California grew by leaps and bounds. Within two years it had increased tenfold. The old Spanish and Mexican population was only a small part of the whole. San Francisco changed from a village into one of the large cities of the United States, with 20,000 inhabitants. It was a real babel of languages — English, German, Spanish, Hawaiian, Chinese, and Malay. California in 1849 formed a government of its own and was ready to enter the Union. As the people were almost all free workingmen, it is not surprising that they

[1] The Mormons built their first "temple" at Kirtland, Ohio, in 1836. They reached Utah in 1847.

forbade slavery entirely. The desire of the settlers that California should be admitted to the Union without slavery again raised the slavery question, dividing men in the South and the North into two hostile groups. It threw all other questions into the backgound and became the principal political issue.

A Frontier on the Pacific.—The acquisition of California and the establishment of the American claim to Oregon secured a new frontier. The United States now faced the Pacific Ocean as well as the Atlantic. It had ceased to be chiefly an outlying part of Great Britain and Europe, offering new homes to those who wished to leave the old, and had become a world, looking eastward toward Europe and westward toward Asia, desiring friendship and commerce with both. One reason why the government was so eager to obtain California was to open a more direct trade with China and the Pacific islands. In 1844 China had agreed to permit Americans to trade in five ports. Ten years later, Japan, also long closed to foreigners, opened ports to American traders. American missionaries were already influential in the Hawaiian Islands.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the Democrats in a hurry to annex Texas? How did they bring it about?
2. What plans had Polk which brought on war with Mexico? What real grievances did the United States have against Mexico? How did the war actually begin? Who was to blame? Why were the anti-slavery men opposed to the war?
3. How did Polk secure Oregon? Did he obtain all of the Oregon country?
4. What did Taylor's, Kearny's, and Scott's armies accomplish in the war? Why were they victorious?
5. What were Polk's terms of peace with Mexico?
6. What event of 1848 made the war with Mexico seem particularly timely to many Americans? Describe the migration of the "Forty-niners."
7. What new settlement did the "Forty-niners" pass on the California

trail? How did the majority of the California gold-seekers finally find wealth? How did the discovery of gold affect business in the United States?

8. Describe California in 1850. Why did the Californians forbid slavery?

9. What further effect had expansion on the United States? What foreign trade privileges were gained about this time?

EXERCISES

1. Compare the ways by which the government of the United States annexed Louisiana and Texas.

2. Was the war with Mexico honorable to the United States?

3. Why may the migration of the "Forty-niners" be compared to the Argonauts or De Soto's El Dorado seekers?

4. Compare the area of California with that of some of the older states.

Important Dates:

1845. Texas annexed.

1846. Oregon secured by a compromise with Great Britain, and the war with Mexico begins.

1848. Discovery of gold.

SUTTER'S FORT IN 1848
Near which gold was first found in California

CHAPTER XXXII

A GREAT DOMAIN, NEW TOOLS, AND WILLING HANDS

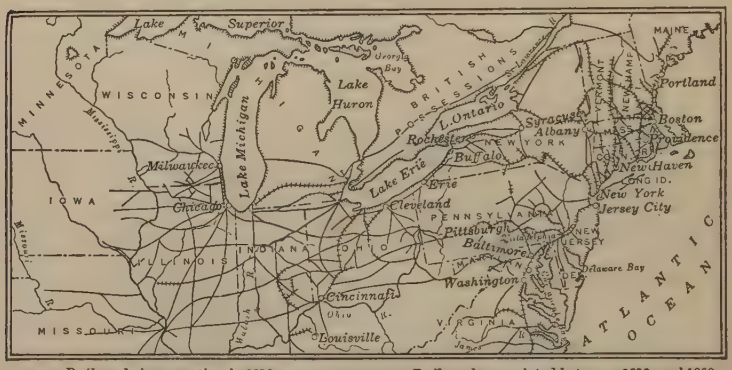
The Domain. — In 1850 the territory of the United States stretched westward from the Mississippi River across the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean. Most of the region was unoccupied except by roving tribes of Indians. Iowa had been a state only four years; Wisconsin only two. Minnesota had become a territory the year before. Where were men and women to be found to carry the line of settlement across this vast domain? The newer states apparently needed all their people for their own unfinished tasks. If men and women could be found, how were they to reach places so distant? The immigrant and the railroad were the answers to these questions.

Railroads. — At the time California was obtained, only a few short railroad lines existed in the Mississippi Valley. None had yet crossed the great Alleghany ranges from the East. Finally, in 1853, the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad reached Wheeling, and the next year the Pennsylvania Railroad was completed to Pittsburgh. Already, in 1852, two railroads entered Chicago: the Michigan Central from Detroit and the Michigan Southern from Toledo. By 1855 travelers could go by rail from New York to St. Louis. During the ten years from 1850 to 1860 the number of miles of railway was tripled. If all the railroads had been put end to end they would have circled the earth, with 5,000 miles to spare.

The early railroads were usually built with the aim of connecting the great waterways. This had been the purpose of

the canals, but they were closed by ice several months each year. The Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio railroads were intended to connect Philadelphia and Baltimore, the eastern rivals of New York, with the rivers of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. The Michigan roads cut off the long route by the Straits of Mackinac from the lower lakes to Chicago.

The railroads soon ceased to be mere connecting links. They were built even on the banks of the Hudson River and



RAILROADS IN OPERATION IN THE NORTHERN STATES IN 1860

along the shore of Lake Erie, challenging the steamboat in the race for trade. As a result new routes of trade sprang up, independent of lake and river and sea-coast. The route on the Mississippi River to the Gulf lost some of its importance, and the relations between the West and the East became closer than those between the West and the South. Settlement, too, moved along these east and west lines. The railroads thus became an important geographical feature added by man to the natural features of river, lake, and mountain.

The growth of towns was affected by such changes. The future of a city was doubly assured if it was served by both

water route and railroad. This was especially true of cities on the Great Lakes — a water route unrivalled in the world. After the St. Mary's ship-canal and locks were completed, steamboats could go from the western end of Lake Superior to the eastern shore of Lake Erie. They carried the iron ores of the Lake Superior region to Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, and Buffalo. To these cities the railroad brought the coal of western Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois. The consequence was that they began manufacturing iron and steel. Chicago, so near the southern end of Lake Michigan, had a further advantage. It was the western end of almost all railroads from the East, and the starting-point of those to the newer West. As early as 1850 a railroad ran west from Chicago as far as Elgin. As the railroad decreased the importance of waterways, Cincinnati and New Orleans lost part of their supremacy in the trade of the Mississippi Valley.

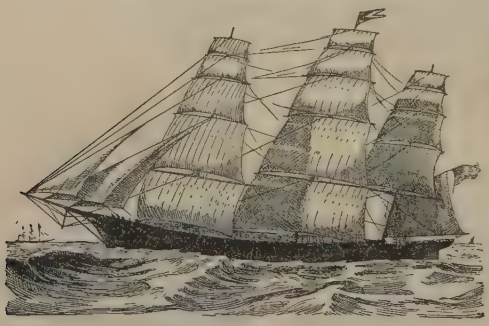
The Telegraph. — While the railroad was binding the country together in many directions, a network of telegraph wires was adding to the means of communication. The telegraph assisted the employees of railroads in managing trains, but it was equally important in enabling the business man to send orders or obtain information from distant places in a few minutes.

Samuel F. B. Morse

The inventor of the telegraph was Samuel F. B. Morse, a professor in New York University. He thought out a plan for sending messages over a wire, and made a rough instrument which did what he expected. As he could get no one to help him build a telegraph line, he appealed to Congress for aid. For several years Congress

refused to grant money, but finally gave him $30,000 with which to build an experimental line between Washington and Baltimore. This was completed in 1844, in time to carry to Washington the news of the nomination of James K. Polk to the Presidency within fifteen minutes after the Democratic convention at Baltimore had reached its decision. Morse's triumph convinced doubting business men. Private companies built lines. In 1848 Ezra Cornell completed a line from New York to Cleveland, Toledo, Detroit, Chicago, and Milwaukee.

A Revolution in the Post-office. — A change in the charges made by the post-office for carrying letters was almost as important as the invention of the telegraph. The rates had been so high that ordinary persons could not afford to write often to friends or business associates living at a distance. A single sheet cost six cents for 30 miles, ten cents between 30 and 80 miles, and so on, until the cost rose to 25 cents for all distances over 400 miles. In 1851 Congress fixed the rate at three cents within the country.[1] Newspapers were by this time carried with the other mail, but the rates for them remained high.



An American Clipper

Steamships. — While the railroad was providing for travel from the Atlantic seaboard to the interior, the steamboat was making it easier to reach America. Sailing ships also made the trip more quickly than in earlier days. The

[1] In 1883 the rate of postage on letters was reduced to two cents.

Americans had learned to build a ship called the "clipper," which could make three voyages between Europe and America while a British ship was making two. These ships by their superiority were pushing the English hard in the race for ocean trade. They were particularly successful in the long voyages required in the trade with China. Sometimes these splendid vessels raced from Chinese ports to New York, eager to land the first cargoes of the new crop of tea. But the creation of the iron steamship meant their ruin sooner or later.

In England timber was scarce, but iron and coal were cheap. About a quarter of the ships which the English built in 1853 were of iron. Fifteen years before this a British line of steamships began regular trips between England and the United States. Excellent though the clippers were, they could not compete with the steamship. The first ocean steamships often required fifteen days for the voyage, but by 1847 they had lowered the time to eleven days.

THE OLD WAY OF REAPING

New Tools for the Farm. — The farmer's task in making the land productive was rendered easier by the invention of new machinery. The sickle and scythe began to give place to the mowing-machine and the harvester, and the flail to the threshing machine. Horserakes, cultivators, and corn planters appeared. The invention of harvesting machinery was chiefly the work of Cyrus McCormick of Virginia. His father had tried for years to make a successful machine for

cutting grain, and young McCormick took up the problem where his father left it. He soon constructed a reaper which was fairly successful. After it had been improved it was able to do the work of twenty men, not only cutting the grain, but also binding it and laying it in windrows.

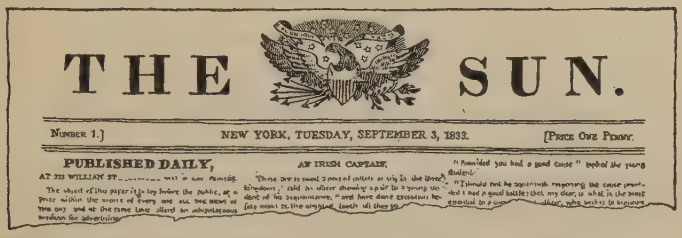
The threshing machine was equally successful. In 1855 at the World's Fair in Paris, six threshers with flails were set at work beside one of the American machines. In half an hour the machine threshed ten times as much wheat as the men. Such farm machinery increased the demand for western land. Thus the line of settlement moved westward faster than ever.

The First Type of McCormick Reaper

Tools for Other Work. — The settlement of the country was helped by the invention of other tools which were not connected directly with farm work. The steam hammer made the tasks of the iron worker easier. The planing machine aided the carpenter. The rotary or cylindrical press helped the printer. Some newspapers ventured to reduce the price from 6 cents a paper to a cent, and declared that they would bring all the news of the day within the means of everybody.[1] The steam-engine supplied them with power, and the telegraph brought in fresh news, and so increased their useful-

[1] The New York Daily *Sun*, 1833, was the first penny newspaper. Two years later, James Gordon Bennett started another, the New York *Herald*. Horace Greeley, in 1841, founded the New York *Tribune;* ten years later Henry J. Raymond established the New York *Times*. The price of these was later increased to two cents.

ness as teachers of the people. The newspapers, in turn, made profitable work for the telegraph, and hastened its extension throughout the country.



THE SUN.

NUMBER 1.] NEW YORK, TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1833. [PRICE ONE PENNY.

PUBLISHED DAILY,

AN IRISH CAPTAIN.

"I rewarded you had a good cause" replied the young

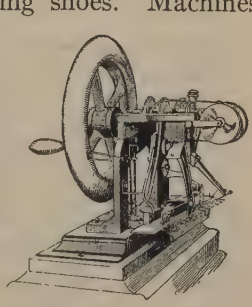
"I should not be surprised respecting the cause you-

The object of this paper is to bring before the public, at a

dent of no consequence, "and have done excellent he-

THE FIRST COPY OF "THE SUN"—A PENNY NEWSPAPER

The sewing machine, one of the most useful of the newer inventions, was completed by Elias Howe in 1846. He had planned it several years earlier, but was too poor to pay the cost of construction. His first machine in a sewing race distanced five of the swiftest hand sewers. It earned him a fortune and lightened the burden of women. The principle of the sewing machine was soon used in constructing machines for sewing leather and making shoes. Machines were also invented which cut and sewed button-holes.



HOWE'S SEWING MACHINE

Other inventions, cook stoves, base-burners, and furnaces, made the home more comfortable and the work of the housewife easier. Americans borrowed from Europe the invention of the match. In a multitude of ways the needs of life were met by the ingenuity of thoughtful men and women. Over 23,000 different articles were patented between 1850 and 1860.

Why the Immigrants Came. — The ways of living in Europe and Great Britain were changed as rapidly as in the United

States. Indeed, in England the factory system developed much faster. Railroads were multiplied. Life for the well-to-do became more comfortable, but for the common man and his family the lands of opportunity lay beyond the seas. They were not the United States merely, but also Canada, Australia, and South Africa. The United States proved far more attractive to the European emigrant than all the other countries together.

Between 1845 and 1850 several events swelled the stream of emigration. In 1845 and 1846 the failures of crops caused much distress in Great Britain and Europe. The potato crop, the principal article of food of the Irish peasantry, was a total failure. All that private charity and government help could do was not enough to prevent terrible suffering. Nearly a million persons perished from starvation or fever. The government repealed the "corn" laws which taxed grain, but this remedy came too late. Thousands sailed for America. A quarter of the population of Ireland was lost from famine, fever, and emigration.

In 1848 Germany was again in the midst of a revolution. The more progressive leaders, weary of the system which gave power to the rulers and to a clique of nobles, attempted first to found a new German empire and then a republic. They were defeated by the aristocratic party and many of them fled to the United States. Others came to better their lot. Between 1846 and 1856 a million Germans entered the country. Some, like Carl Schurz, soon became leaders in its political struggles.

It was not strange that the new "pilgrims" turned their faces toward America, which offered them cheap lands, light taxes, work for all, and equality with their neighbors. The Irish commonly remained in the towns and cities of the coast states. The Germans went to the frontier — Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Texas — wherever good land was to be had.

The soil and climate and crops were so much like those of Germany that it was easy to take up the new life. To be the makers of food products by farming, pickling, preserving, canning, milling, seemed to be their work. They chose the best farm lands and made records as the most successful farmers of the country. They came in such numbers that they almost succeeded in making Wisconsin a German state. Some parts of the West became a New Germany, just as Pennsylvania had been in the eighteenth century. To-day a large majority of the people of Wisconsin are German immigrants or their descendants.

Some Special Debts to the Germans.—The Germans were better taught than most of the native Americans, because a new system of schools had been established in Germany. The skilled workingmen and the farmers were well trained. As citizens they helped to make better schools in the United States. Furthermore, American students began to go to Germany for higher education. In still other ways they deeply influenced American life. They had a taste and love for music and painting and sculpture that few Americans had at that time. Wherever they went they became the teachers of these arts. In a multitude of ways—by singing societies, gymnastic organizations, open-air celebrations, fairs and frolics and festivals — they added to the wholesome pleasures of life.

The older northern states also contributed their share of settlers to the new West. Families were still large, and the sons and daughters accepted the common advice of the time "Go West, young man!" [1]

Share of the South in the New Activities.—The southern states, especially the older ones, had almost no share in the new activities which busied the North and West. European

[1] These words are supposed to have first appeared in the Terre Haute *Express*, 1851.

immigrants seldom settled there, except in border states like Maryland, or in Missouri and Texas on the frontier. Factories were rarely established south of Maryland. The slaves, native Africans or their descendants, were too ignorant, clumsy, and wasteful to use machinery or engage in the higher kinds of farming.

But there was another reason why few industries were established in the South. The increase in the demand for cotton, especially in England and in New England, convinced the southerners that their greatest profits would be found in cotton growing. The production increased from 1,976,000 bales in 1840 to 4,675,000 twenty years later. As the price during the same time had increased, the gains of the planters were large. Like the sugar planters in the West Indies in the eighteenth century, they could not afford to build their machinery or weave their cloth or even raise their food. Everything of that kind they purchased in Great Britain, in Europe, or in the northern states. They bought, for example, $5,000,000 worth of shoes a year in Massachusetts. The cottons which they required to clothe their slaves were obtained either in New England or old England. For this reason others besides the southerners were interested in the production of cotton. Others also feared any change in the system of labor which might endanger a profitable trade. No wonder the southerners said that "Cotton is king."

PLOWING A SOUTHERN COTTON FIELD

Slavery in the Border States. — It would be a mistake to

suppose that slavery existed on every farm in the South. Only about one family in five owned any slaves. The others supported themselves and their families by their own labor. Most of the slaves were in South Carolina, Georgia, and the Gulf states. Outside of the cotton belt, the greater part of the work was done by free laborers. The plantation system of using slave labor was profitable to the owners only so long as fertile land was cheap and plentiful. Wherever that gave out, slavery slowly broke down. Each year saw the abandonment of old cotton fields in the eastern states of the South and the establishment of new plantations in the Gulf states. This could not go on forever.

PICKING COTTON

Before the Revolution slavery was common in all colonies, North and South. It slowly declined in the North and disappeared. The change was brought about mainly because slaves had ceased to be profitable. Since 1783 it had also been slowly declining in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. In that year negro slaves formed about one-half the population of Virginia; in 1860 not more than one-third. In Maryland free negroes did about one-half of all the work.

The question of labor troubled the planters greatly. All their money was invested in land and slaves. A good field-hand cost from $1,500 to $1,800. The planters knew that the slaves were poor laborers. Many would have given up their slaves gladly if they could have found free laborers upon

whom they could depend, but they did not believe that the slaves would work if freed. The abolition of slavery, they thought, meant the ruin of the South.

A Southern Planter

QUESTIONS

1. What unoccupied territory did the United States possess in 1850?

2. What railroads joined the East with the Mississippi Valley between 1850 and 1860? What was the aim of the builders of the first railroads? Of the later ones? How did the railroads affect the routes of trade? The relations of East and West, North and South?

3. How did the railroads affect the growth of cities? Why did Chicago become a great city? Buffalo, Cleveland, and Detroit?

4. What was the effect of the telegraph lines? Who invented the telegraph? How did he prove its usefulness?

5. What change was made in postal rates? Why was the change an important one?

6. What were the "clipper" ships doing? What kind of ships began to take their place? Why did England build iron steamships instead of wooden "clippers"?

7. What farm machinery was invented? What effect had each on farm work? What tools were invented for other work? How did each affect the work of the shop or the home?

8. How were the ways of living changing in Europe? Why did immigrants come in increasing numbers? Did they leave Europe for any other countries besides the United States?

9. Why did the Irish migrate to America in such numbers? Why did the Germans? What did each do in America? What special debt does the United States owe to the Germans? Who besides the Germans settled in the new western territories?

10. Why did the South fail to share in the new activities? Why did the southern people confine themselves so fully to cotton growing? Did anybody else profit from slave labor in cotton growing?

11. Did the majority of the southern people own slaves? Where had slavery already ceased entirely? Why had it been abandoned? Where had it partially broken down? How long could slavery last in the South? If the slaves were such poor laborers why were the southern people unwilling to free them?

EXERCISES

1. What states had been formed west of the Mississippi besides those mentioned in the chapter?

2. What cities have become great through the help of railroad lines?

3. What was the length of time needed to cross the ocean in colonial days? After the beginning of regular steamship lines?

4. What did the Southerners mean when they declared, "Cotton is king"?

Important Dates:

1844. Morse builds the first telegraph line from Washington to Baltimore.

1846. Elias Howe invents the sewing machine. The Irish potato famine starts a great Irish migration to the United States.

1848. A revolution in Germany starts a great migration of Germans to the United States.

COTTON

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE QUESTION OF SLAVERY

Slavery and the New Southwest. — The question of slavery was not a new political issue. It had been discussed when the Ordinance of 1787 was being prepared. It was brought up again after the purchase of Louisiana, and an arrangement concerning that territory was embodied in the Missouri Compromise. With the acquisition of New Mexico and California, and with the increasing flood of immigrants in the West, it excited men's minds as never before.

Planters knew that the time would come when the old cotton lands would be worn out, and new lands would become necessary or the investment in slaves would be worthless. In 1849 the people of California voted to exclude slavery, but the southern leaders thought that a bargain might be made by which California should be divided into two states, and slavery permitted in southern California. They had already given way as to Oregon, and Congress had prohibited the holding of slaves within its limits, but they had no idea of yielding in regard to the Southwest. Delegates from several southern states met at Nashville in order to express a united opposition to any plan of closing California or New Mexico to slavery. Some leaders talked freely of their intention to break up the Union rather than permit such a law.

Fugitive Slaves. — Nor was this the only difference between the states with slaves and those without. By the laws of the United States, if a slave ran away his master could pursue him even into another state. It was the duty of United

States officers to help the owner recapture his property. The law was an old one, having been made in 1793 when Washington was President. Slaves, especially in border states like Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri, frequently ran away. Their masters found it difficult to capture the fugitives because many people in the free states were ready to help them escape. The slave-holders accordingly demanded a more severe law by which those who aided fugitive slaves might be punished.

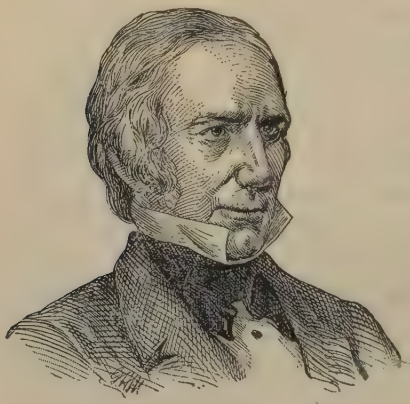
A House-Slave of Washington's Day

Northern Opponents of Slavery. — The northern abolitionists demanded that the system of slavery should be destroyed root and branch. William Lloyd Garrison was still the leader, and in twenty years of untiring agitation he had won a loyal, though not a very numerous, following. The majority of the northern people were opposed to interference with slavery in the states. Workmen feared that if the negroes were freed, they would migrate to the northern states in such numbers as to reduce their wages. Business men were afraid that Garrison's plan would ruin the South and so shut off the supply of cheap cotton and destroy the market for northern goods. But many northern people, who would not go so far as the abolitionists, were anxious to stop the spread of slavery into the new territories.

Those who wished to prevent the spread of slavery were called "Free-soilers." Many of them broke away from the old political parties, and in the election of 1848 voted to make Van Buren President. Lewis Cass, the Democratic candidate, proposed to leave the slavery question to the people of the territories. As they were often called squatters, this was called the doctrine of "Squatter Sovereignty." The

Whigs took no stand on the slavery question, and nominated for President General Taylor, the "hero of Buena Vista." Taylor was elected, but the question was not forgotten.

The Compromise of 1850. — In 1850 the moderate leaders of the old parties united to bring about a settlement. Henry Clay, now a very old man, acted as their spokesman, and proposed a compromise. It was the third great compromise that he had lived to propose when the Union was in danger. For nearly a year Congress discussed the parts of Clay's plan. The ablest orators of America spoke. Calhoun, wasted with old age and so feeble that he could not stand, sat while another read his speech. A few days afterward the famous champion of the South died. Clay and Webster appealed to men of the North and the South to lay aside their differences in order to save the Union.



Henry Clay

The Compromise of 1850 was an attempt to satisfy both sides. (1) By forbidding the buying and selling of slaves in the District of Columbia, Clay hoped to please those in the North who wished to abolish slavery there. (2) By a new fugitive slave law, he hoped to pacify southern slave-holders. (3) By admitting California without slavery, he believed the North would be pleased. (4) By the provision that Congress should not interfere regarding slavery in Utah and New Mexico,[1] but should leave the inhabitants free to decide between free and slave labor, he wished to end the dispute

[1] These included Nevada and Arizona.

about the new territory.[1] This last provision meant that slave-holders could take their slaves into the Southwest and have a share in deciding the question whether slavery should be permitted or abolished. The statesmen who arranged the Compromise imagined that every great difference had been laid to rest. Within a few months the old leaders, Clay and Webster, died. If the Compromise failed, new men and new measures must save the Union.

OVERLAND TO THE PACIFIC.

The San Antonio and San Diego Mail-Line.

THIS LINE, which has been in successful operation since July, 1857, is ticketing PASSENGERS through to San Diego and San Francisco, and also to all intermediate stations. Passengers and Express matter forwarded in NEW COACHES, drawn by six mules, over the entire length of our Line, excepting the Colorado Desert of one hundred miles, which we cross on mule-back. Passengers GUARANTEED in their tickets to ride in Coaches, excepting the one hundred miles above stated.

Passengers ticketed through, from NEW-ORLEANS, to the following points, via SAN ANTONIO:

To Fort Clark,	Fare, $52.		To Fort Bliss,	Fare, $100.	
" Hudson,	" 60.		" La Mesilla,	" 105.	
" Port Lancaster,	" 70.		" Fort Fillmore,	" 105.	
" Davis,	" 90.		" Tucson,	" 135.	
" Quitman,	" 100.		" Fort Yuma,	" 162.	
" Birchville,	" 100.		" San Diego,	" 190.	
" San Elizario,	" 100.		" Los Angeles,	" 190.	
" El Paso,	" 100.		" San Francisco,	" 200.	

The Coaches of our Line leave semi-monthly from each end, on the 9th and 24th of each month, at 6 o'clock A.M.

An armed escort travels through the Indian country with each mail train, for the protection of the mails and passengers.

Passengers are provided with provisions during the trip, except where the Coach stops at Public Houses along the Line, at which each Passenger will pay for his own meal.

Each Passenger is allowed thirty pounds of personal baggage, exclusive of blankets and arms.

Passengers coming to San Antonio can take the line of mail-steamers from New-Orleans five times a week to Indianola. From the latter place there is a daily line of four-horse mail-coaches direct to this place.

On the Pacific side, the California Steam Navigation Company are running a first-class steamer, semi-monthly, to and from San Francisco and San Diego.

Extra Baggage, *when carried*, 40 cents per pound to El Paso, and $1 per pound to San Diego.

Passengers can obtain all necessary outfits in San Antonio.

For further information, and for the purchase of tickets, apply at the office of C. C. WAYNE, 61 Camp Street, New-Orleans, or at the Company's Office, in San Antonio.

G. H. GIDDINGS. } Proprietors.
R. E. DOYLE. }

MODE OF TRAVEL TO THE NEW TERRITORY
Reduced facsimile of an advertisement of the Overland Stage

The new men had already made themselves heard. In the anti-slavery party they were William H. Seward of New York, Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, and Charles Sumner of Massachusetts. On the pro-slavery side stood Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia. Seward had opposed the Compromise and in the course of the debate had appealed to a "higher law" than the Constitution, a law of liberty and justice. Had Taylor lived, perhaps the Com-

[1] Texas was satisfied for a loss of territory given to New Mexico by a grant of $10,000,000.

promise would not have been adopted, for Seward had great influence over him.[1]

The Failure of the Compromise. — The quiet which followed the Compromise was soon ended. The extremists on neither side were satisfied. The southerners believed that they had lost ground by the admission of California as a free state and by the prohibition of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia. The advantages that the Compromise offered in return proved to be worthless. Slavery could never pay in Utah and New Mexico. Physical geography had, as Webster said, forever settled the question. Negro slaves had neither the skill nor the industry needed to make the deserts bear fruit. Nor was the new fugitive slave law of any great value.

The Underground Railroad. — The Compromise had also made the northern abolitionists angrier than ever. They denounced particularly the law for the recovery of fugitive slaves. When some one said that the northern people ought not to work against slavery because the laws of the United States protected it, James Russell Lowell, the poet, exclaimed, "To be told that we ought not to agitate the question of slavery, when it is that which is forever agitating us, is like telling a man with the fever and ague on him to stop shaking, and he will be cured."

Such people secretly aided negroes to escape in spite of the law and the danger of punishment. They hid them in their houses in the day time and at night helped them on their way north to another hiding place. Such places were called "stations" of the "underground railroad." In this way thousands of slaves escaped. A master who followed the fugitives too far into the North was in danger of injury from angry mobs. Some men made it a business to hunt slaves

[1] President Taylor died in 1850 and was succeeded by the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore.

for others, and stories were told of how they tried to use the new law to carry back into slavery negroes who were rightfully free.

"Uncle Tom's Cabin." — In 1852 Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote a story of the life of a slave. Some things that she said were true; many were not true. She failed to show that there were different kinds of negro slaves, and how most of those in the cotton states were only half-civilized and quite unlike the fairly well-trained house-servants of the border states. Her story was interesting and described some abuses that doubtless did occur under bad masters. Multitudes of men, women, and children in the North read the book and believed that all slavery was like that which she described, and that all southern white people were like her cruel masters, slave-drivers, and slave-traders. Such stories aroused against slavery multitudes whom Garrison had failed to reach.

Stories were told at the South of how the abolitionists distributed pamphlets or sent agents into the southern states to induce the slaves to run away. The conviction that they had been cheated in every compromise steadily gained ground among the southerners. Men said that it had been so in 1820 and it was so again now. Every attempt to treat with the North, they asserted, would have a similar result. Instead of the peace which Clay, Webster, and Calhoun had hoped for, deeper hatred spread over the land.

Kansas and Nebraska Bill. — The situation was made worse by the rule which Congress adopted in opening for settlement the Indian country west of Missouri and Iowa. The southern leaders were anxious to add new slave territory.[1] Some of them hoped to obtain Cuba from Spain by purchase,

[1] Iowa had been admitted without slaves in 1846. The admission of Arkansas in 1836 and Michigan in 1837, and of Florida, Texas, Iowa, and Wisconsin in close succession during 1845, 1846, and 1848, had kept the number of states

or even to take it by force. Douglas desired to satisfy them in order that he might gain their support as Democratic candidate in the next presidential election. Accordingly, when Congress divided the upper part of the old Louisiana Purchase into Kansas and Nebraska territories, Douglas proposed that the inhabitants should decide at some future time whether they would permit slavery or not. This was the rule which had been applied to Utah and New Mexico.

TERRITORIES FROM WHICH KANSAS AND NEBRASKA WERE ERECTED

The bill meant that the new territories were opened to slavery if its supporters could occupy them. This broke the agreement made by the Missouri Compromise that slavery should not be permitted in the Louisiana Purchase north of the southern boundary of Missouri. It was the turn of the anti-slavery men to feel that they were wronged. Furthermore, the law soon led to a struggle for Kansas, the forerunner of a greater war.

War in Kansas, 1854-57. — Free-soilers and slave-holders were stirred to action by the offer of Kansas to the swiftest and strongest party. Settlers poured in from North and South. They were colonists sent with the strange mission of battling with their neighbors for possession of a fair ter-

with slaves and without them equal. The admission of California put the free states ahead.

ritory.[1] Covered wagons which had started for California gold-fields with "California or bust" painted on the sides put on "Kansas" instead. Adventurers and frontiersmen, eager for excitement, joined in the fray. Many Missourians crossed the boundary, some to settle with their slaves, others merely to help their party win the victory. These men the

SCENE ON THE KANSAS BORDER

Note the ferry-boat propelled by poles, the stern-wheeled steamboat, and the wagons

anti-slavery people called "border ruffians." The most determined leader of the anti-slavery settlers was John Brown, who with four sons, all well armed, fought against the colonists from the southern states. It was a war of ambushes and assaults on settlements. The Missourians succeeded in founding Atchison and Leavenworth, near the Missouri River, while the Free-soilers took up the lands farther back, around Lawrence and Topeka.

The Free-soilers soon outnumbered their opponents. The North had the advantage not only in the number ready to emigrate to Kansas, but also in money to aid them, and in

[1] The new territories included the great region which now makes up the states of Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, Montana, part of Colorado, and Wyoming.

railroads to carry them to the battleground. The consequence was that the Free-soilers eventually succeeded in organizing a government without slavery. Besides, the Kansas and Nebraska Act had further widened the breach between the North and the South.

Rise of a New Political Party, 1854-1860. — The Kansas and Nebraska Act led also to the formation of a new political party. The organization, under the name "Republican," started in the northwestern states during the summer of 1854, and spread rapidly over the entire North. The people of the Northwest had long regarded the lands on the Kansas, the Platte, and the Missouri rivers as destined for free farmers like themselves. They resented a measure which upset their plans. Besides, Douglas was interfering with another plan. The workingmen of the East had recently made a new demand. This was that the government should give every man in the United States who had no land and desired some a free homestead of 160 acres of western land. They expected that their plan would draw many laborers from the crowded cities and make wages higher for those left behind. Those who took up free lands would buy goods, tools, and machinery, and make times better in factories and mills and mines. This part of the plan pleased the merchants and manufacturers of the East and won their support.

End of the Whig Party. — The new party grew faster because the voters in the old parties, especially the Whigs, had come to believe that their leaders were more interested in securing offices for themselves than in settling the serious problems of the nation. The Whig leaders kept saying that the question of slavery had been settled by the Compromise of 1850. Multitudes of the members of the party thought differently and joined the Republicans. The Whig party melted away, much as the old Federalist party had disap-

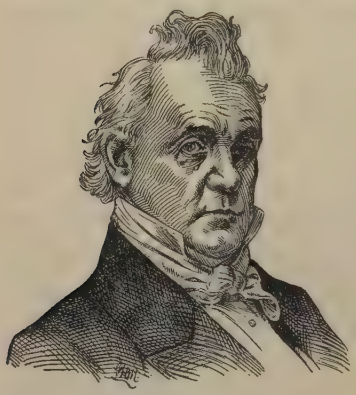
peared. The Democratic party lost many, especially of the workingmen, for the same reason.

The Dred Scott Affair.—In 1857 an event took place which stirred the Republicans fully as much as the Kansas and Nebraska Act. A negro, Dred Scott, his wife, and two daughters, claimed their freedom because their master had once taken them North into territory where slavery was unlawful. The Supreme Court of the United States promptly decided that according to the law they were still slaves; that settled the matter as far as these negroes were concerned. The Chief-Justice, Roger B. Taney, and several justices, went further, thinking that the question of slavery could be settled if the Supreme Court expressed an opinion upon it. Accordingly, the majority of the court announced that the Missouri Compromise had been void from the first, because Congress had no power to forbid slavery in any territory. They also declared that not even the inhabitants of a territory could do this, since slaves were property and the Constitution permitted a man to carry his property into the territories. The decision meant that even if the Republicans could repeal the Kansas and Nebraska Act, they were powerless to prevent the spread of slavery into Kansas and Nebraska. They thought Taney's decision was bad law. Instead of settling the question of slavery once for all, Taney, like Douglas, had made the matter worse.

Abraham Lincoln.—Abraham Lincoln had been practising law in Illinois, riding the circuit of the scattered frontier courts as was the custom of the day, and voting the Whig ticket. He had been a member of Congress from 1847 to 1849. He had been losing interest in politics, but the Kansas and Nebraska Act and the Dred Scott opinion aroused him.

In 1858 an Illinois Republican convention nominated him for the Senate against Douglas, who was still the great Democratic leader. In his speech accepting the nomination Lin-

coln declared courageously, "A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved; I do not expect the house to fall; but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other." He plainly showed that he wished to stop the progress of slavery in the territories, and even hinted that he expected that the opponents of slavery would finally destroy it.



James Buchanan

Lincoln challenged Douglas to debate the question before the citizens of Illinois. The two men presented a striking contrast. Douglas was considered a great orator and a shrewd debater. As he was short he was commonly called the "Little Giant." Lincoln was tall and awkward, but he already had the reputation of uttering sayings as wise as those of "Poor Richard." His way of reasoning was perfectly clear and straightforward. Before the debates were ended he had compelled Douglas to explain that though Congress, according to the Dred Scott decision, might not forbid slavery in the territories, the people of the territories could make slave-holding impossible by passing laws hostile to it. This statement made the southerners angry at Douglas. Lincoln lost the election, but he had won a hearing before the whole country and was regarded as one of the leaders of the Republican party.

The young party grew rapidly. In 1856 a majority of the northern states voted for the Republican candidate for President, but the Democrats in the North and the South elected

their candidate, James Buchanan of Pennsylvania. After the Dred Scott affair, the Republicans won other northern states, until by 1859 they had more members than the Democrats in the House of Representatives.

John Brown's Raid, 1859. — The southern people were alarmed by the growth of a northern political party. They knew that the Republican leaders said that their chief object was to abolish slavery in the territories, but no southerner believed that the Republicans would be satisfied to stop there. The abolitionists among them were resolved to destroy the system everywhere. Who could tell when they would control the whole party?

An event in the fall of 1859 seemed to give good ground for more serious alarm. One quiet night in October, John Brown, with 18 followers fully armed, seized the little Virginia village of Harper's Ferry with its United States gun factory and store of arms. It was the first act in a strange plan. Brown intended to arouse the slaves in Virginia, put arms in their hands, and by their aid provide a mountain stronghold for all slaves. There would be a great war against slavery carried into the heart of the South, and waged mainly by the negroes themselves. The abolitionists were too mild for him. "Those men," he said, "are all talk; what is needed is action — action!" He seems to have thought that northern people would aid him with money and arms in a race war in the southern mountains, as they had in Kansas.

HARPER'S FERRY IN 1859

Nothing turned out as he hoped. The slaves in the neighborhood of Harper's Ferry did not rise. His men raided several plantations and told the slaves that they were free, but the negroes refused to fight. Within a few hours Brown was captured at Harper's Ferry by a military force under command of Colonel Robert E. Lee of the Regular Army. Brown and several of his men were tried and hanged for murder and treason. Such was the tragic ending of a plan over which Brown had brooded for twenty years, until he believed that God had called him to free the slaves.

The people of the South were horror-stricken at Brown's raid. He had attempted to bring about what they had always most dreaded — an armed uprising of the slaves. They could not tell how many northern people supported the plan. They heard that some abolitionists rejoiced in Brown's deed and proclaimed him a martyr. Those at the South who disliked the slave system, and there were many such, as well as those who approved it, denounced the North. It was impossible to convince them that Brown's deed was his own, and that the great majority of the northern people thought it wrong. Each one who had tried to settle the slavery question, Clay, Douglas, Taney, and Brown, only made the matter worse.

QUESTIONS

1. What important political question divided the people of the United States in 1848? What step did California take? What did southern leaders want to do before admitting California into the Union? What had Congress done in the case of Oregon?

2. What other questions divided the states with slaves and those without? What change in the fugitive slave law did the slave-holders want?

3. What did the abolitionists seek to do? Why did the majority of northern people oppose the plan of the abolitionists? What were many northern people anxious to do regarding slavery? What name was given to this party? What position did the two great political parties take on the subject in the election of 1848?

4. What leaders supported Clay's Compromise? How did Clay try to satisfy both sides? What method did he use to end the dispute about slavery in the new territory?

5. What new leaders took the places of the older men? Why were the Southerners soon dissatisfied with the Compromise? How did the northern abolitionists help fugitive slaves? What effect did their methods have on the South?

6. Describe Mrs. Stowe's novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. What influence did it have? What did the South believe about the abolitionists? What did it think about compromises with the North?

7. What rule did Douglas propose for the Kansas and Nebraska territories? Why did he make this proposal? Where else had it been adopted? What effect did it have on the Missouri Compromise? Whom did it displease?

8. Why did Douglas's Kansas and Nebraska Act bring on a war in Kansas? Who were the fighters? Why did the Free-soilers win? What effect had the Kansas and Nebraska Act on the difference between the North and the South?

9. What new political party was formed in the North? Why did the people of the northwestern states favor it? The workingmen of the East? The merchants and manufacturers? Why did the Whig party lose its followers?

10. What did the Supreme Court say in the Dred Scott decision regarding the power of Congress? Why did the Republicans think it bad law?

11. Whom did the Dred Scott decision arouse? What did he say regarding slavery in his debates with the "Little Giant"? What did Douglas say which made the southern Democrats angry with him?

12. How did John Brown try to end slavery? What did the southern people think of the raid? Whom did they blame?

EXERCISES

1. Review Clay's three great compromises proposed to save the Union. See pages 316, 332, 378.

2. Review the story of the Federalist party.

3. Prepare a summary of this chapter under the headings which follow:

   (*a*) 1850. Clay's attempt to settle the slave question.

   (*b*) 1854. The attempt of Douglas to end the difference over slavery in the territories.

   (*c*) 1857. The attempt of Roger B. Taney and the majority of the Supreme Court to settle the difference over slavery in the territories.

   (*d*) 1859. The attempt of John Brown to destroy the entire slave system.

CHAPTER XXXIV

A DIVIDED NATION

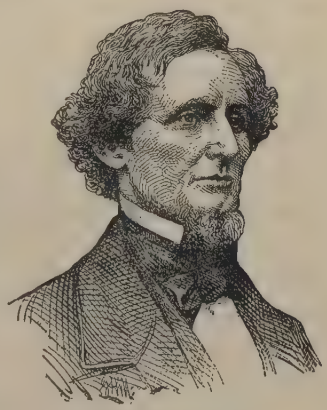
Election of Lincoln. — The election of 1860 was intensely exciting. Southern leaders, like Senator Jefferson Davis, thought that the choice of a Republican President would bring ruin upon the South. They were prepared to break up the Union unless the government would support the Dred Scott decision, that is, protect slave property in the territories, whether the inhabitants of them wished it or not. When the Democratic convention met in April, they attempted to force the delegates to embody such a demand in the party platform or programme. A majority of the delegates were Douglas men and refused. Thereupon the delegates of the cotton states withdrew. The others, meeting later in the year, nominated Stephen A. Douglas as President, while the "bolters" nominated John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky, who at the time was Vice-President.

The split in the Democratic party led to the success of the Republican party, the very thing that the Southern leaders declared would be ruinous. The Republican convention met in Chicago in May. Seward seemed at first to be the favorite candidate, but on the third ballot Abraham Lincoln was nominated as President. Earlier in the year Lincoln had strengthened his reputation by a speech in New York, in the course of which he denied that the party was in any way responsible for the John Brown raid. He showed that while the Republicans were pledged to resist the spread of slavery into the territories, they did not intend to interfere

with it in the southern states. Lincoln was commonly considered as more cautious than Seward, and he was counted upon to carry Illinois and one or two other doubtful states.

In the election Lincoln carried all the northern states except New Jersey, whose electoral vote was divided between Lincoln and Douglas. Lincoln's electoral vote was 180, while his opponents received 123. Douglas and Breckenridge together received a much larger popular vote. It was clear, therefore, that the Democrats would have won if the delegates of the cotton states had not insisted upon their programme.

South Carolina's Declaration of Independence. — Immediately after the election South Carolina decided to withdraw from the Union. The legislature called a convention which, on December 20, repealed the ratification of the Constitution passed in 1788, and declared the state a "free and independent nation." As the leaders of the cotton states had agreed to stand together, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas soon followed the example of South Carolina.



Jefferson Davis

A New Republic, 1861. — In February, 1861, a convention of delegates held at Montgomery, Alabama, took the necessary steps to form a new republic, calling it the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was chosen President, and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia Vice-President. The constitution of the Confederate States repeated the old constitution almost word for word. The Southern leaders were convinced that the old constitution,

if properly enforced, would make their property in slaves as safe as any other kind of property. In the new constitution however, they took pains to make this so clear that there could be no dispute.

The Southern People and the old Union. — Most of the southern people wished to remain in the Union under which they and their fellow-Americans had grown to be a great nation. The stories of heroic deeds, of Bunker Hill and Yorktown, of leaders like Washington and Jackson, of the pioneers who had carried the flag from territory to territory, were posssessions of both North and South. For thirty years John C. Calhoun and Jefferson Davis had worked as earnestly as Henry Clay and Daniel Webster to find a way to preserve the Union. But such men as Davis now believed separation better.

The Doubtful States. — At first only the cotton states withdrew from the United States. In the border states — Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri — slavery had so far declined that the majority of the people had little interest in defending it. Besides, the business men were more closely connected with the North than with the South. Their real attachment was to the United States rather than to the new Confederate States.

Between them and the cotton states lay Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas. In them also slavery was slowly disappearing. Their closest bonds were, nevertheless, with their southern neighbors. Virginia was proud of the state's share in the nation's history. For a while these states waited and watched the course of events.

What would Buchanan do? — Buchanan's term as President did not close until three months after South Carolina had seceded, and one month after the convention at Montgomery had begun the organization of the Confederate States. The leaders of the new republic were anxious about

DOMINION OF CANADA
MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
1861
The heavy black line shows the greatest extent of territory held by the Confederates.
SECEDING STATES
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
MEXICO
WASHINGTON TERRITORY
OREGON TERRITORY
DAKOTA TERRITORY
NEBRASKA TER.
NEVADA TER.
UTAH TER.
COLORADO TERRITORY
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
INDIAN TERRITORY
KANSAS
MINNESOTA
IOWA
ILLINOIS
MISSOURI
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
OHIO
INDIANA
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISSISSIPPI
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
TEXAS
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMP.
MASS.
CONN.
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Longitude West 97 from Greenwich
C. J. PETERS & SON ENGRS., BOSTON

his attitude toward them. They remembered that when South Carolina prepared to resist a national law President Jackson took such vigorous steps to compel obedience that opposition was dangerous. Would Buchanan take similar measures?

They had not long to wait. In a message to Congress Buchanan said that a state had no right to withdraw from the Union, but neither the President nor Congress had any power to compel the cotton states to return to the Union against their will. Such words encouraged the leaders of the Confederate States. Southern senators, representatives, judges, and post-masters gave up their places under the United States government and took service under the new republic.

President Davis and his associates had no doubts about the justice of their cause. Few of them had any idea that separation would bring on war. South Carolina sent a commission to Washington to arrange with the United States a division of the national debt and a settlement regarding the national property within the state.

Attempts to compromise again. — A compromise had saved the Union so many times that men thought the old method would serve again, but no plan was found upon which they could agree. Lincoln was consulted by the Republicans in Congress. He offered to support an amendment to the Constitution making it clear that Congress had no power to interfere with slavery in any southern state. The southern Congressmen insisted that the provision be added that Congress had no power to exclude slavery from the territories of the United States. To this point Lincoln would not agree. Since the Kansas and Nebraska Act, slavery in the territories was the one thing that the Republicans had determined should cease.

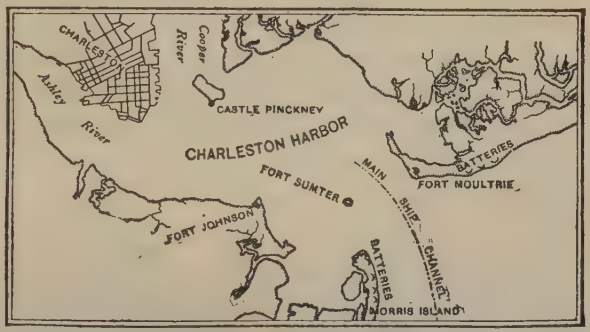
Would it be War or Peace? — The question in every man's

mind throughout the winter of 1861 was whether the withdrawal of seven cotton states meant war or peaceable disunion. Some dreaded civil war more than dividing the country. Horace Greeley, editor of the New York *Tribune*, one of the Republican leaders in the North, urged peaceable separation. "If the cotton states," he wrote, "shall become satisfied that they can do better out of the Union than in it, we insist on letting them go in peace." No one knows how many agreed with him. Among those who shared this opinion were the Friends or Quakers. Such men loved the Union, but did not wish to shed blood to keep the South in it. They trusted that if treated generously the South would return of its own free will. The Garrison abolitionists rejoiced over the withdrawal of the cotton states as the easiest way to purge the Union of slavery. It was commonly said that Senator Seward was working for a compromise by which the plan of keeping the territories wholly for free settlers should be given up. The majority of the Republicans looked upon the secession of the cotton states as treason, and the men who led it traitors. A compromise on the question of the territories was no longer to be considered.

HORACE GREELEY

The northern people had gradually gained a strong national feeling, while the southerners were first of all loyal to their states. The immigrant had come to seek a home and an opportunity not in any particular state but in the United States. To him the separate states seemed simple subdivi-

sions of the country. The multiplication of railroads, the close relations of trade, the settlement of the West by the children of eastern families, all combined to make Webster's cry, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable," the watchword of the North. Lincoln expressed the same feeling by his declaration in his inaugural address that "the union of these states is perpetual." Would the northern people support such a view by war?



Map of Forts in Charleston Harbor

What shall be done with Fort Sumter? — The Confederate States had as yet met with no obstacles as an independent republic. Buchanan had finished his term and Lincoln had become President. The Confederate States had taken possession of national custom-houses, forts, and military supplies, worth together about $30,000,000, located within their limits. Fort Sumter, on an island in Charleston harbor, held out almost alone among the old forts. Its commander, Major Robert Anderson of Kentucky, had an officer's scruples against abandoning a post of duty. But he needed provisions and reinforcements. In January Buchanan had sent the *Star of the West*, with 200 men, arms, ammunition, and other supplies, but it was fired upon in Charleston harbor and compelled to return to New York.

What to do about Fort Sumter was Lincoln's first hard problem as President. He assured the North and the South that the government would not use force unless force was used against it. Jefferson Davis said to his supporters that Sumter would be abandoned without war. Five weeks passed after Lincoln's inauguration, and still there was peace. Neither side was willing to bear the blame for starting a great civil war. Meanwhile Confederate commissioners had been sent to Washington to attempt a peaceful settlement. They were not officially received. On April 8 President Lincoln notified the governor of South Carolina that he intended to supply the fort with provisions. At the same time he explained that he would not reinforce the garrison or add to the stock of ammunition unless the state troops resisted.

Fort Sumter after the Bombardment

Fall of Fort Sumter. — On Saturday morning, April 13, 1861, the northern newspapers announced that Charleston troops were bombarding Fort Sumter. The Confederate government at Montgomery had finally concluded to attack the fort before it could be relieved. The bombardment began early on Friday, April 12, and lasted two days. Anderson and his men held out until the fort was in ruins and its wooden buildings were on fire. Then they surrendered. They were

allowed to salute their flag and to depart for the North aboard Federal ships which were waiting off the harbor.

The Call to Arms. — In the North the attack on Fort Sumter was the signal which all had dreaded. If the Union were not to be dissolved, the government must be upheld. This was the sentiment of many northern Democrats, as well as of the Republicans. Buchanan and Douglas[1] let it be known that they would aid in enforcing the laws and in recovering the property of the United States.

Monday morning, April 15, Lincoln asked the governors of the states to supply the United States with 75,000 soldiers. It was a call to arms. The response, except from the border states, went beyond the hopes of the North. The first volunteers were chiefly men in militia regiments already organized. The Sixth Massachusetts, composed of citizens of Concord, Lexington, and the surrounding towns, left for Washington within 48 hours.

The Southern Answer. — The response in the Confederate States to the call of Davis for troops was no less prompt and generous. A southern leader said, "The anxiety among our citizens is not as to who shall go to the wars, but who shall stay at home."

The Border States. — On the outbreak of war, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas joined the Confederate States. Eleven states in all joined in the effort to form a southern nation. Twenty-two states remained loyal to the old government. Richmond was chosen as the permanent capital of the Confederacy. The loss of Virginia was an especially serious one to the United States. Its nearness to Washington placed the capital in great danger. Several distinguished Virginia soldiers, among them Robert E. Lee,

[1] Stephen A. Douglas, only 48 years of age, died a few weeks later, but to the last used his influence to unite the North.

thought their duty was with their state and left the Union army to serve the South.

One or two of the border states seemed almost ready to follow the example of Virginia and Tennessee. The governor of Missouri refused to send any troops, but the timely energy of the German citizens of St. Louis, under the leadership of

THE WHITE HOUSE OF THE CONFEDERACY
Residence of President Jefferson Davis at Richmond

Captain Lyon, saved the state for the Union. Maryland also was doubtful for a time, and the Sixth Massachusetts regiment was attacked by a mob as it was marching through Baltimore. The western counties of Virginia seceded from Virginia and formed a new state, West Virginia, which was later admitted into the Union. The people of east Tennessee were equally opposed to secession, but did not carry their opposition so far. The border states remained in the Union partly because of Lincoln's tact and generosity in dealing with them.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the southern Democrats divide their party? Whom did the two parts nominate as candidates for President? Why did the Republicans nominate Lincoln? Why was Lincoln successful in the election of 1860? What was the programme or demand of the southern leaders?

2. What did South Carolina do after the election of Lincoln? What states followed its example? Whom did the Confederate States choose as President and Vice-President? What kind of a constitution did they adopt?

3. What states wavered between the Union and the new republic? Which way did each incline?

4. What did Buchanan think of the withdrawal of the cotton states? What was the effect of his attitude?

5. What concession was Lincoln willing to make to prevent war between the northern and southern states? What did the leaders of the cotton states demand? What plan did some leaders like Horace Greeley advocate? Others like Seward?

6. Why were the northern people more attached to the Union than the southern?

7. What was the first obstacle that the Confederate States met? Why did Lincoln hesitate to send supplies and reinforcements to Fort Sumter? Why did the Confederate government finally attack Fort Sumter? What was the result?

8. What was the result of the call for troops in the northern states? In the southern states? In the border states?

9. Why did distinguished Virginians like Robert E. Lee leave the army of the United States to aid the Confederate cause? What states joined in the attempt to form a new republic in the South? Which ones were divided in sentiment and action?

EXERCISES

1. How long was it after South Carolina seceded before war began by the attack on Fort Sumter?

2. Wherever possible gather stories of the topics mentioned in this chapter from persons who were living when the events happened.

Important Dates:

April 14, 1861. Fort Sumter captured by the troops of the Confederate States, beginning the Civil War.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE BEGINNING OF CIVIL WAR

Resources of the North and the South. — The Southern leaders supposed that "cotton was king," but war proved that the kingdom of corn, wheat, coal, and iron was stronger. The planters were so occupied in raising cotton, and to some extent rice and sugar, that they did not build factories, open coal mines, and dig iron ore. Their system of railroads was incomplete and poorly equipped. English or northern ships carried their cotton to the market. Most of the steamboat lines which ran on western rivers belonged to northern companies. The food of the whole country was raised mainly on northern and western fields.

In war such things count. Armies must be fed, supplies must be carried rapidly, the wear and tear of campaigning must be met by new equipment. A people whose chief occupation is a particular kind of agriculture is at a great disadvantage in struggling with a people provided with a well-developed system of manufactures and a boundless food supply. The South was obliged to look to Europe for the military supplies that it could not produce and to pay for them with its cotton. It could not, however, send cotton abroad unless its ports were kept open. As the South had neither war-ships nor sufficient ship yards to build them, its trade with England and Europe was sure to be cut off sooner or later by a blockade.

The South was also at a disadvantage in numbers. The white population of the states in the Confederacy was

5,400,000, while the total population of the Union, including the border states, was 22,000,000. The disadvantage of the South in numbers, as compared with the North, was partially overcome by the employment of slaves not only in raising food but also as teamsters and laborers in the army. Furthermore, many citizens of the border states fought in the southern armies.

RAILROADS AND NAVIGABLE WATERWAYS OF THE SOUTH, 1861

Geography of the War. — The leaders of both North and South sought to grasp any advantage which their own situation or that of their enemies offered. As the navy remained loyal to the national government, the North possessed the sea power. It could choose points of attack on the Atlantic coast or on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. Southern seaports soon felt the weight of war, while no northern port was threatened.

The great Appalachian barrier served to divide the war into two distinct fields of operation, that of Virginia and that of the Mississippi Valley. The barrier was pierced by

northern railroads running from New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore westward, and by southern railroads from Richmond to Knoxville and Chattanooga, and from Charleston to Memphis.

Two valleys played an important part — the Shenandoah Valley and the Great Appalachian Valley of eastern Tennessee. The Shenandoah has been compared to a gun trained on Washington, through which troops might be discharged if the national armies moved southward toward Richmond.

Scene in the Shenandoah Valley

The Blue Ridge on the eastern side of the Shenandoah, with its many "gaps," served also as a screen behind which an army might move north or south, bursting through upon some weak point of the Union line. The valley could not be used equally well by the national armies, for it led away from Richmond toward the southwest. Through the Appalachian Valley, in like manner, a southern army could be thrown into Kentucky if the national armies advanced along the line of the Mississippi River.

Except for the danger from the Shenandoah, the geography of Virginia seemed to favor the North. Chesapeake Bay and the James River offered an easy approach to Richmond. A direct march overland from Washington to Richmond was hampered by rivers running from the Piedmont hills to the coast, each furnishing a natural line of defense.

West of the Appalachians the advantage of position lay also with the North. The Mississippi was a great highway leading either north or south, but the North could build armed steamboats faster than the South. At only a few points in its course, such as Columbus in Kentucky, and Vicksburg in Mississippi, does the river touch high plateaus or bluffs which can be fortified. It is unlike a river flowing between hilly shores which offer a multitude of places for defense. Two other rivers, the Cumberland and the Tennessee, which empty into the Ohio near where it joins the Mississippi, are navigable, the first to a point many miles above Nashville, the other as far as northern Alabama. In Tennessee, near the Kentucky border, they are only twelve miles apart.

SCENE ON THE GATEWAY TO THE NORTH
The Shenandoah River near Harper's Ferry

Railroads were almost as important as rivers. It is true that raiders could tear up tracks and burn bridges, but trained workmen could soon replace both. Railroad junctions were especially important. Manassas Junction was such a place, where the railroad from Washington to Lynchburg was joined by a railroad from the Shenandoah Valley through Manassas Gap. Bowling Green, in Kentucky, was another, situated near the junction of the Louisville and Nashville and the Memphis and Ohio railroads. Still another was Corinth, Mississippi, where the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, the only through line from the lower Mississippi to the coast,

crossed a railroad from Mobile. Chattanooga, in southeastern Tennessee, was important because of river, mountain pass, and railroad, for there the Tennessee River breaks through the Cumberland Plateau, the eastern wall of the Appalachian barrier. There also important railroads met connecting the cities on the Mississippi with Charleston and Richmond.

Union Soldier in Uniform

Soldiers North and South. — Both North and South had trained officers to command at least a part of their armies. These men were graduates of West Point, had been in the regular army, and some of them had fought in the Mexican War. The regular army numbered only 16,000 men. The chief reliance was upon volunteers. The Southerners, more accustomed to outdoor life, and the planters to leadership, were readily transformed into soldiers. The Northern volunteers came fresh from farms, factories, shops, and desks. Many of them were led into battle before they had been taught how to handle a gun. The Germans, who enlisted in the Northern armies, were an exception, for most of them had received military training before they had left the fatherland.

As the South stood on the defensive, simply insisting on its right to secede and form a separate nation, the Southern soldier was fighting on his own ground and in a climate to which he was accustomed. The North, declaring that the Union should be preserved, had the task of occupying the southern states and compelling their return to the Union. Its soldiers fought, in a sense, in a foreign country. Vast regions of the South were still a wilderness, with few roads and bridges. If the Northern armies succeeded in forcing

their way far into the South, they had to guard a hundred places along their line of advance, or be cut off from their sources of supply.

Blockade of the South. — On April 19, five days after the fall of Fort Sumter, President Lincoln issued a proclamation declaring the ports of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida in a state of blockade. A week later the other Confederate ports were included. At first it was a "paper" blockade, that is, the navy was not large enough to station ships before each port in order to carry out the proclamation.

CONFEDERATE SOLDIER IN UNIFORM

The blockade proved a huge undertaking. The coast of the Confederacy stretched from the Potomac to the Rio Grande, and contained 200 harbors. Every kind of vessel, even old ferryboats, had to be pressed into use as men-of-war. The lines of blockade were gradually drawn closer until within a year trade from southern ports almost entirely ceased. Only one-fiftieth as much cotton was exported in 1862 as in 1860.

The Southern people made great efforts to outwit the "sea-dogs" watching their coast. Shipbuilders in the South, the West Indies, and in Great Britain constructed swift blockade runners, with sides so low that at a little distance in the night they were almost invisible. These vessels often succeeded in escaping from unfrequented harbors, with cargoes of cotton, bound for the Bermudas and the Bahamas. They brought back supplies for the army or goods which the South could not produce.

Many stories are still told in the South about the bravery and success of the captains of the blockade runners. When a ship was able to bring a cargo from Europe the profits were

worth the trouble. At one time cotton was $2.50 a pound in Liverpool, though it was only four or five cents a pound in Charleston.

The Confederacy seeks allies. — It was so important for the South to trade with England and Europe that its leaders sought help abroad to break the blockade. They needed money and ships. They were in much the same situation as the colonies, which obtained supplies and a navy from Europe during the Revolution.

The governing classes of England and France sympathized with the South. They were eager to profit by the free trade which the Confederacy offered. There was no danger that the Southerners, like the Northerners, would become their rivals in manufacturing. Many shrewd English and French statesmen were delighted that the great republic seemed falling into pieces. The workingmen of England, however, and most of the middle class, believed that the North was fighting the battle of free labor.

On account of the scarcity of cotton, English merchants and manufacturers wished the war to end speedily. Many cotton mills were closed and their employees dismissed. It is doubtful whether even the Southerners suffered as much as the employees of the English cotton factories. Many were kept from starvation only by food which the British government furnished.

England and the South. — Before the year 1861 was ended, England was nearly drawn into the struggle. The Confederate government sent two commissioners, Mason and Slidell, to persuade the English and the French to acknowledge that the Confederacy was an independent nation. The English government had already announced that it would treat the Southerners as "belligerents," that is, as persons having a right to carry on war, rather than as rebels against the United States. This action made many people in the North very

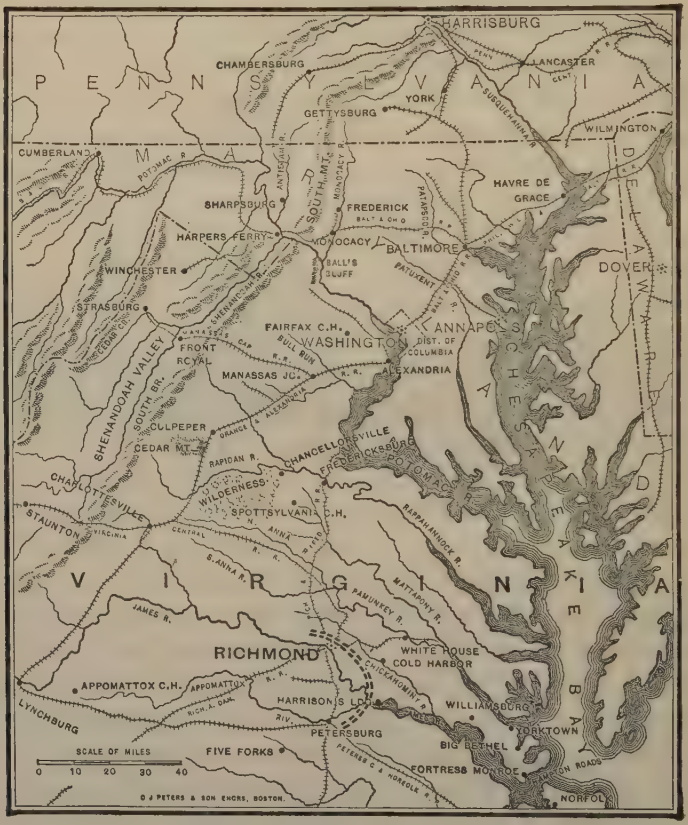
angry. Had England formally acknowledged the independence of the South the United States would have taken the act as a declaration of war. The excitement was increased when news came that the commander of a Union war-ship had stopped the British steamer *Trent*, on which Mason and Slidell were traveling, and had arrested them. The act caused much rejoicing in the North, but President Lincoln at once saw that it was contrary to the principles that the United States had defended in 1812. He felt that the United States could not deny the right of search at one time and make use of it at another. Consequently he ordered the release of the commissioners. The English government had already despatched troops to Canada, and but for the influence of Queen Victoria would have tried to take advantage of the blunder to humiliate the United States.

THE CRUISER "ALABAMA"

No sooner had this question been settled, than the United States learned that English ship-builders were constructing war vessels for the South. Two ships, the *Florida* and the *Alabama*, sailed from England in 1862 to fight for the Confederate cause. They were not strong enough to attack northern cities or to break the blockade of southern ports. They therefore ranged the seas, destroying Union merchant vessels until they were themselves captured. In permitting these vessels to sail the English government was in the wrong, and was later compelled to pay heavy damages.

Battle of Bull Run, July 21, 1861. — With soldiers untrained no great battles could occur in the first months of the war. There was fighting in Missouri between the Unionists and Secessionists, and the Unionists succeeded in holding

the state. In Kentucky ballots rather than bullets decided whether the state should secede. When the votes were counted it was found that a large majority were Union men.



Map of Campaigns in Virginia

In the western counties of Virginia, Northern troops drove out a small army sent by the governor of the state. The Northern leader was George B. McClellan, a West Pointer who had fought in the Mexican War.

It was near Washington that the first important battle

took place. The Confederate General Beauregard was in command of a small army at Manassas Junction, while General Joseph E. Johnston, with a few thousand more troops, was at Winchester in the Shenandoah Valley, not far from the railroad running through Manassas Gap to Manassas Junction. The aged General Scott, who was still at the head of the United States army, and his second in command, General Irwin McDowell, forced by the impatience of the North, planned an attack on Beauregard. Part of the plan was that a body of Federal troops in the Shenandoah Valley should keep Johnston busy.

It soon appeared that railroads and telegraphs were as important in war as in commerce. Johnston escaped from his enemy in the Shenandoah and began sending reinforcements over the Manassas Gap Railroad to Beauregard. Scott, hearing the news from the Shenandoah, telegraphed McDowell that he had two armies to fight rather than one.

McDowell persisted in making the attack. His plan of battle was excellent, and everything went well until about three o'clock in the afternoon. By that time the Union and the Confederate troops were equally exhausted. Only one part of the Confederate line, commanded by General Thomas J. Jackson, stood firm. A brother officer exclaimed, "See Jackson, he stands like a stone wall." Henceforth Jackson bore the name of "Stonewall." Just then another division of Johnston's men appeared, brought by the railroad. They were fresh and were skillfully led. The exhausted Union soldiers wavered, broke, and fled. In the terrible panic which followed, many never stopped until they reached the neighborhood of Washington, thirty miles distant.

Lessons of the Battle. — The North and South learned valuable lessons from the battle. The Northern people had counted upon a speedy victory. Such a defeat was a terrible blow, but after the first gloom passed off, the people set

about preparing for a more serious struggle than they had expected. Some of the Southern soldiers thought that the war was ended and started for home. Their army was almost as disorganized by victory as the Northern army was by defeat.

The officers on both sides realized that time was needed to transform the brave and self-sacrificing volunteers into real soldiers, capable of manœuvering on the battlefield as well as on the parade ground. McClellan, an excellent organizer and drill-master, took charge of the Northern army, now called the Army of the Potomac, while Johnston commanded the Southern or Army of Northern Virginia. Robert E. Lee acted as President Davis's chief-of-staff. General Scott, weakened by age, soon withdrew, so that the Army of the Potomac was directed by McClellan alone.

Use of Sea Power. — The North used its rapidly constructed navy not only to establish a blockade before Southern ports, but also to occupy important points along the coast of the Confederacy. In August, 1861, Fort Hatteras on the North Carolina shore was captured, and in November Port Royal, one of the best harbors on the coast, only 50 miles from Charleston, South Carolina.[1] A little later the North gained a foothold at the mouth of the Savannah River.

QUESTIONS

1. What advantages had the North at the beginning of the Civil War? The South? Of what use were the slaves to the South during the War?

2. Why did the North have the advantage on the ocean? How did the Appalachian barrier affect the war? What railroads pierced it? To which army were the Shenandoah and the Great Appalachian valleys of most use? Was Richmond easy of approach?

3. What rivers formed great highways into the South? Why were they useful for the North and harmful for the South?

[1] Fort Caroline, the French Huguenot settlement, destroyed by Menendez in 1565, was at Port Royal.

4. What railroads were especially important in the Civil War? Were they as useful as rivers? Why were Vicksburg, Manassas Junction, Bowling Green, Corinth, and Chattanooga important places?

5. What advantages did the Southern soldiers have over the Northern?

6. What did it mean to declare the Southern ports in a state of blockade? How did the blockade affect the South? What were the blockade runners doing? Why did they risk much?

7. What help did the Confederates seek? Who sympathized with them? Who did not? What class in England suffered greatly from the Civil War in the United States?

8. Why did the United States have trouble with England? Why did the United States release Mason and Slidell? Who in England did help the South? What should the English government have done in the matter?

9. Describe the first important battle of the Civil War. What part did the railroad and the telegraph have in the battle? Why did the Confederate army win? What did the officers of the North and of the South learn from the battle?

10. What successes had the Northern navy before the end of the first year?

EXERCISES

1. Find on a map (see page 401), the rivers, railroads, and important towns mentioned in this chapter, and tell why each one was mentioned.

2. How was the attempt of the South to secure help from England and France like the attempt of the colonies to secure help from France, Holland, and Spain in the Revolution?

Important Date:

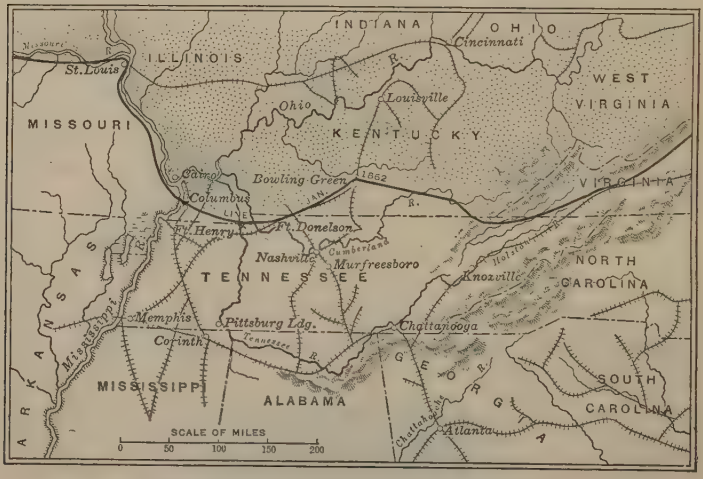
July 21, 1861. The Battle of Bull Run.

CONFEDERATE BATTLE FLAG

CHAPTER XXXVI

STORY OF VICTORY AND DEFEAT

A Long Struggle. — Compared with other recent wars, the Civil War had by 1862 lasted a long time. Two years before, France had begun a war with Austria in April and it had ended in July. A few years later, a war between Aus-



THE LINE OF DEFENSE IN JANUARY, 1862

tria and Prussia opened in June and closed in August. The Civil War was to last three years longer, although within a year and a half it was clear that the North was slowly gaining the advantage. The change was due to campaigns in the Mississippi Valley, for the positions of the armies in Virginia remained almost the same in spite of the most desperate fighting.

Confederate Line of Defense Broken. — In January, 1862, the Confederate line of defense ran from the fortifications at Columbus on the Mississippi River, through Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson, twelve miles away on the Cumberland, past Bowling Green, to Cumberland Gap. The position of Columbus was very strong. It was situated on bluffs so high that it could not be reached by guns fired from armed steamers, while the plunging fire of its batteries would destroy any vessels which attempted to pass. If the Confederate line was to be broken, the attack must be made elsewhere. The Union officers concluded to make it at Fort Henry and Fort Donelson. The expedition was commanded by General Ulysses S. Grant, a graduate from West Point, who had fought in the Mexican War.

A Mississippi Iron-clad Gunboat

General Grant's army was assisted by armored gunboats, a new kind of war vessel. Seven had been built at St. Louis in 1861. They did not resemble ordinary river steamboats. Their sides were sloping and built of heavy oak planking. In front the oak was twenty-four inches thick and covered by iron plates two and a half inches thick. The sides next to the machinery were also covered with iron. As the gunboats moved through the water they looked like great clumsy turtles.[1]

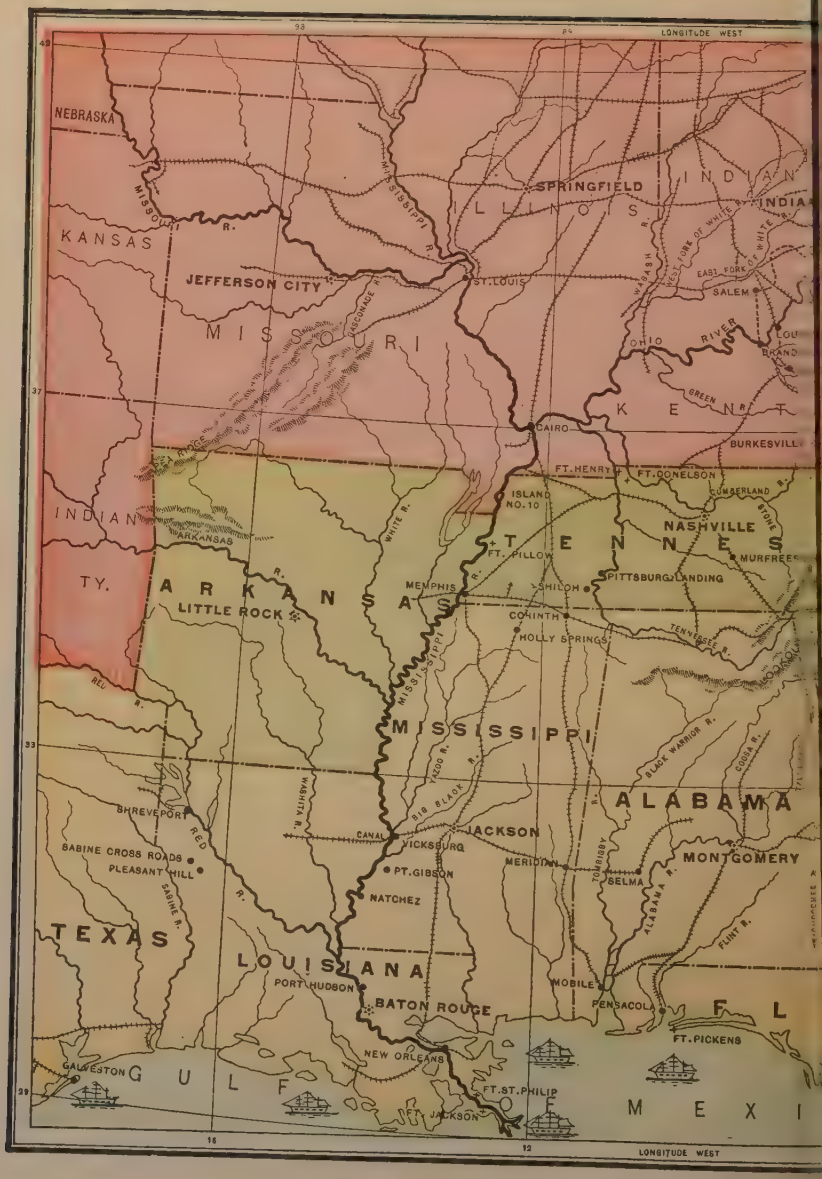
[1] A few armored vessels had been used in Europe nine years before in the Crimean War.

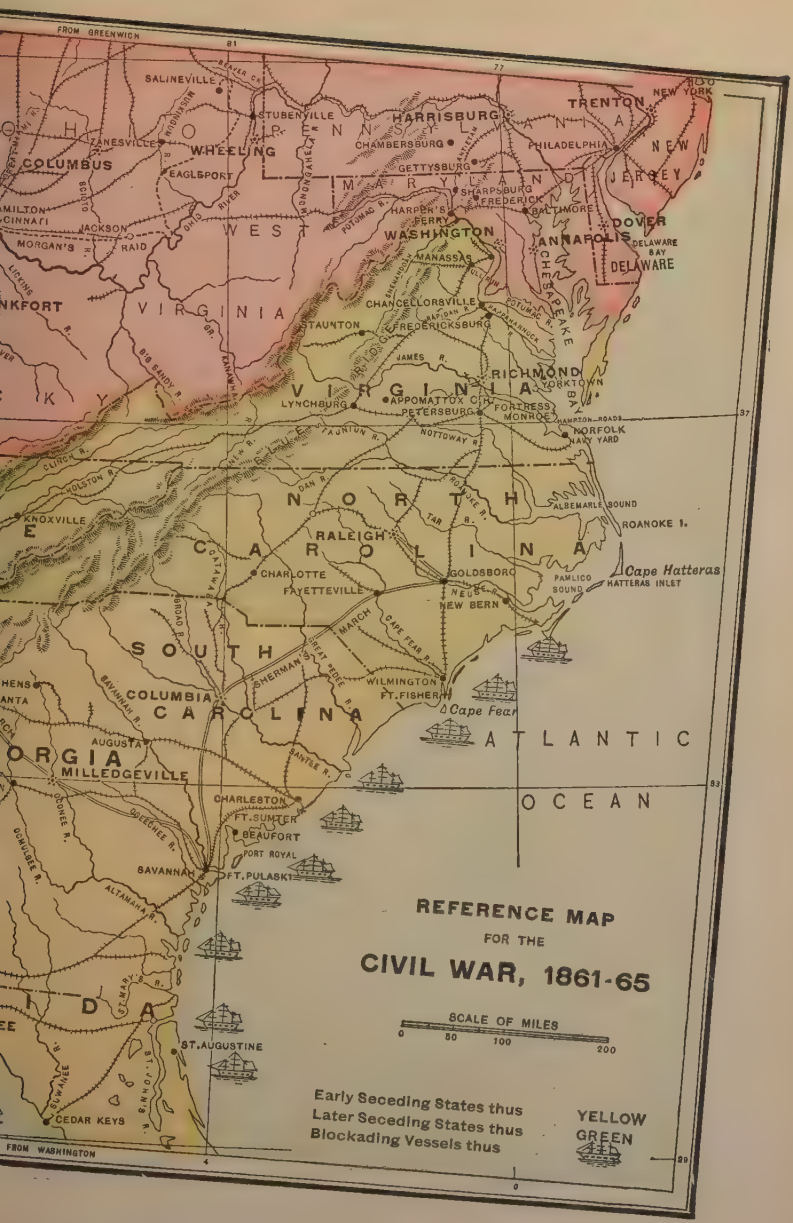
Capture of Fort Donelson. — The little war fleet steamed up the Tennessee to within 600 yards of Fort Henry and compelled it to surrender after a lively cannonade. A similar attack on Fort Donelson was not so successful, for two of the gunboats had their steering gear shot away and drifted about helplessly. Grant ordered an immediate attack by his army, and after severe fighting the Confederate commander surrendered with 14,000 men. The news of this success filled the North with rejoicing. It was the first important victory which the Union troops had gained.

The loss of the two forts which guarded the upper waters of the Tennessee and the Cumberland threw the Confederate defense into confusion. Both Columbus and Bowling Green were abandoned. Nashville, the capital of Tennessee, situated on the Cumberland River, was also abandoned by the Confederate troops within ten days. Light gunboats steamed up the Tennessee to northern Mississippi and Alabama, destroying or capturing Southern steamboats and supplies. The Confederate armies established a new line of defense running from Memphis through Corinth and Chattanooga. This line was also broken after one of the severest battles of the war, that of Shiloh, near Pittsburg Landing on the Tennessee River.[1] Corinth was then taken, and a gunboat fleet moved down the Mississippi and forced Memphis to surrender. The Confederates held thereafter no other important fortified place on the Mississippi River except Vicksburg, for New Orleans had meanwhile been captured.

Capture of New Orleans. — The capture of New Orleans was an exploit of the Union navy, under the leadership of

[1] At Pittsburg Landing, about twenty miles from Corinth, Grant acted as if he had forgotten how near the enemy was. The Confederates under Albert Sidney Johnston surprised him and drove his army back in disorder during the first day's fighting. The great Confederate leader was killed in battle. During the following night General Buell reinforced Grant with a fresh army. The second day Grant drove the Confederates off the field.


LONGITUDE WEST
NEBRASKA
KANSAS
MISSOURI
JEFFERSON CITY
ST. LOUIS
SPRINGFIELD
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
SALEM
OHIO RIVER
KENTUCKY
CAIRO
BURKESVILLE
FT. HENRY
FT. DONELSON
ISLAND NO. 10
NASHVILLE
TENNESSEE
MURFREESBORO
FT. PILLOW
MEMPHIS
SHILOH
PITTSBURG LANDING
CORINTH
HOLLY SPRINGS
INDIAN TY.
ARKANSAS
LITTLE ROCK
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
SHREVEPORT
SABINE CROSS ROADS
PLEASANT HILL
CANAL
VICKSBURG
JACKSON
PT. GIBSON
NATCHEZ
MERIDIAN
SELMA
MONTGOMERY
TEXAS
LOUISIANA
PORT HUDSON
BATON ROUGE
MOBILE
PENSACOLA
FT. PICKENS
NEW ORLEANS
GALVESTON
GULF OF MEXICO
FT. ST. PHILIP
FT. JACKSON
LONGITUDE WEST


FROM GREENWICH
81
77
SALINEVILLE
STUBENVILLE
HARRISBURG
TRENTON
NEW YORK
ZANESVILLE
WHEELING
CHAMBERSBURG
PHILADELPHIA
NEW JERSEY
COLUMBUS
EAGLESPORT
GETTYSBURG
SHARPSBURG
FREDERICK
BALTIMORE
HARPER'S FERRY
WASHINGTON
ANNAPOLIS
DOVER
DELAWARE BAY
DELAWARE
MANASSAS
JACKSON
MORGAN'S RAID
CHANCELLORSVILLE
STAUNTON
FREDERICKSBURG
VIRGINIA
RICHMOND
YORKTOWN
LYNCHBURG
APPOMATTOX C.H.
PETERSBURG
FORTRESS MONROE
HAMPTON ROADS
NORFOLK NAVY YARD
37
JAMES R.
NOTTOWAY R.
BIG SANDY R.
CLINCH R.
HOLSTON R.
DAN R.
ROANOKE R.
TAR R.
NEUSE R.
NORTH CAROLINA
ALBEMARLE SOUND
ROANOKE I.
KNOXVILLE
RALEIGH
CHARLOTTE
GOLDSBORO
PAMLICO SOUND
Cape Hatteras
HATTERAS INLET
FAYETTEVILLE
NEW BERN
CATAWBA R.
BROAD R.
MARCH
CAPE FEAR R.
SOUTH CAROLINA
SHERMAN
STREET RIDGE
WILMINGTON
FT. FISHER
Cape Fear
COLUMBIA
SAVANNAH R.
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
AUGUSTA
MILLEDGEVILLE
CHARLESTON
FT. SUMTER
BEAUFORT
PORT ROYAL
SAVANNAH
FT. PULASKI
83
OGEECHEE R.
ALTAMAHA R.
ST. MARYS R.
ST. AUGUSTINE
SUWANNEE R.
APALACHICOLA R.
CEDAR KEYS
FROM WASHINGTON
4
0
29
REFERENCE MAP
FOR THE
CIVIL WAR, 1861-65
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200
Early Seceding States thus
Later Seceding States thus
Blockading Vessels thus
YELLOW
GREEN

Flag-officer David G. Farragut, a native of Tennessee, who had remained loyal to the national government. Farragut fought his way, April 24, past the forts which guarded the river below the city. A Federal army soon landed and took possession. The fall of New Orleans, the largest city and the principal seaport of the South, was a great blow to the Confederacy. It opened the lower Mississippi to Northern fleets and made the blockade easier.

Nothing further was accomplished in the West by either side for several months. General Bragg led a large Confederate army through the Appalachian Valley into Kentucky, hoping to rally the people of that state to the Southern cause. He was checked in the neighborhood of Louisville. He then retreated into Tennessee, where at the close of the year he fought the desperate battle of Murfreesboro, but failed to dislodge the Federals from the central part of the state. The beginning of 1863 found the Federal troops in the positions they had won in Tennessee and northern Mississippi.

Federal Plans in Virginia. — The partial success of the Federal plans in the West was not repeated in the East. The hopes of the North were centered on the Army of the Potomac which McClellan had organized and which numbered 185,000 men. McClellan planned to transport this army to the old Yorktown peninsula and to advance upon Richmond. In March, 1862, the appearance in Hampton Roads of a new Confederate fighting ship threatened his plan, for a day at least.

"Merrimac" and "Monitor." — Upon the outbreak of the war the national government had abandoned the navy yard in Norfolk, Virginia. A powerful frigate, the *Merrimac*, had been set on fire and then sunk. The Confederates raised it, cut away its masts, and boxed the main part of the deck with sloping sides covered with heavy iron plates. It was a much

stronger vessel than any of the gunboats recently completed at St. Louis.

On March 8 the *Merrimac* steamed out of Norfolk and attacked the frigates on blockade duty in Hampton Roads. One it rammed and sank, another it set on fire. The cannon balls of the Union guns glanced from its iron plates like rubber balls. Its commander, satisfied with his day's work, steamed back to Norfolk, expecting to destroy the rest of the fleet the next day. When the news of what had happened reached Washington, the government was thrown into a panic, for President Lincoln and his officials believed that the *Merrimac* would move up the Potomac and fire on the capital. The sea power appeared to have passed to the Confederates.

THE "MONITOR" AND THE "MERRIMAC"

Fortunately for the Union cause, John Ericsson, a Swedish engineer, had just completed in the Brooklyn navy yard a vessel equally formidable, called the *Monitor*. Its deck was raised only a few feet above the water line. Upon the deck was placed a round gun-house or turret, turned by machinery, so that the two heavy guns could be pointed in any direction. Those who saw it for the first time compared it to a "cheese-box on a raft."

When the *Merrimac* moved out of Norfolk, on March 9, to complete the destruction of the Federal fleet, it was met by this strange antagonist, scarcely one-fourth its size. For four hours the two cannonaded each other. The *Monitor* had the advantage in rapidity of motion, so that it could avoid the heavy blows of the *Merrimac's* ram. Finally the *Merrimac* gave up the fight and retreated to Norfolk. Both

sides claimed the victory, but the *Merrimac* did not come out again, and two months later it was blown up by its own men when they were obliged to abandon Norfolk.

The battle of the iron-clads in Hampton Roads interested the whole world. Builders of naval ships in England and Europe saw that the older kind of battle-ship was now useless and that they had to reconstruct their navies. The "Super-Dreadnought" of to-day does not much resemble the little *Monitor*, but the use of the turret is the same.

Winning Victories and losing a Campaign. — The success of the *Monitor* enabled McClellan to begin his campaign. His army was carried down to the neighborhood of Yorktown by water. It was well organized, and the soldiers had confidence in their leader. McClellan was a good manager. He made full use of railroad and telegraph. As his army marched forward a telegraph line was run to his new headquarters. He could telegraph to the President or the Secretary of War at any moment. If the army paused, wires were run to the headquarters of every division of troops, so that McClellan could send his orders instantly.

McClellan was not a "fighter" like Grant. He listened to rumors which declared that the Confederates had more soldiers than he, although he had twice as many. He was angry because the government kept McDowell with 40,000 men near Washington, instead of sending them to aid in the capture of Richmond. Just at that time Jackson had thrown the Washington officials into a panic by a raid down the Shenandoah Valley as far as the Potomac. McClellan won several victories, but was finally obliged to abandon the attempt to capture Richmond, although once he was within four miles of the city. The commander of the Confederate army at first was Joseph E. Johnston, but he was wounded and General Lee took his place.

Lee's Successes. — Some weeks later, in the last days of

August, 1862, Lee severely defeated a Union army a second time on the old field of Bull Run, and drove it back on Washington. It was his turn to plan an invasion. In September he marched north, east of the Blue Ridge, and crossed the Potomac into Maryland. This was an attempt to carry the war on to Union soil and to relieve Virginia. McClellan was

WHERE THE SECOND BATTLE OF BULL RUN BEGAN

recalled from the Peninsula to defend Washington. On September 17, with an army twice as large as Lee's, he checked Lee at Antietam. His methodical caution permitted Lee to return to Virginia. McClellan was now removed from command. In December, a new commander, General Burnside, recklessly hurled the Union army against Lee on the heights behind Fredericksburg, and was repulsed with frightful losses. More than twelve thousand of his best troops were left on the battle field. After that the armies rested and the year closed in Virginia much as it had opened. Gloom and discouragement prevailed in the North. Two years had passed, and the South was unconquered. Instead, it was rejoicing in victories.

A New Weapon, January 1, 1863. — In this time of disappointment Lincoln decided to try a new weapon against the

South. During the war the slaves had remained faithful to their masters, generally in ignorance of what it all meant. They raised the food which supplied the Confederate armies, or acted as teamsters and laborers, or as servants to the officers. Their work relieved the Southerners so that more men could serve as soldiers.

On January 1, 1863, Lincoln announced that henceforth the slaves in all the Confederate states not at that time held by Union troops would be considered as free. He hoped that this would weaken the South. It would mean that wherever Northern armies went after that date the slaves would be made free and cease to support the Confederates.

Robert E. Lee

Lincoln hoped for even more from his emancipation proclamation. There were increasing numbers of people in England and in the North who looked upon slavery as a great wrong. Lincoln himself said, "If slavery is not wrong, nothing is wrong," but he wanted to save the Union, and "not either to save or destroy slavery." He thought that was for the Southern states to do. He said, "If I could save the Union without freeing any slave, I would do it, and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it. And if I could save it by freeing some, and leaving others alone, I would also do that." He finally decided that he could save the Union only by destroying slavery.

Results of the Emancipation Proclamation. — The only immediate effect of the decision was to encourage those in the North opposed to slavery and to win the sympathy of the

English people. Abolitionists and Unionists were now closely united in a common cause, for the success of the North meant both the saving of the Union and the freeing of slaves.

Lincoln's Plan of paying the Owners of Slaves. — Slavery had been gradually breaking down in the loyal border states and in the other slave states wherever the Union army went. In such places the negroes were roaming about working for whomsoever they pleased and whenever they pleased. Many of them found employment as soldiers, or laborers about the Union camps. In 1861 Congress had freed the slaves in the District of Columbia and had paid the owners for their loss. Lincoln was anxious to extend the same arrangement to the border states. He proposed that Congress in like manner compensate all owners of slaves in the border states and in the South who would recognize the Union, but such plans were soon forgotten in the heat of war.

Will the Union fail? — The third year opened darker than ever for the Union. Lincoln's proclamation of Emancipation gave offense to the northern Democrats, who thought that the President had no power to interfere with slavery in the states whether in time of peace or war. Lincoln had said that he could not in time of peace, but that the war gave him the power. Besides, the Democrats had never believed Lincoln capable of saving the Union. Men asked whether it would not be better to yield to the South and stop so costly a war. Many of the soldiers were weary of the struggle. Officers said that a thousand deserted every week. The government was unable to obtain sufficient volunteers in some states, especially in New York, and drafted men — that is, chose them by lot — for the army.

Cost of the War. — The expenses of the national government before the outbreak of the Civil War had been small, reaching in 1860 only to the sum of $63,000,000 a year.

They were nearly twenty times that before the war closed. At first Congress was afraid to lay heavy taxes, lest the people should lose their enthusiasm to preserve the Union. By 1862 Congress began to tax everything. Among the taxes was one like the Stamp Tax of 1765, providing for the use of stamps on receipts, legal papers, and other documents. Congress also authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to borrow large sums, giving interest-bearing bonds in return. In 1862 it was decided to issue "Greenbacks" instead of depending alone on taxes and on selling bonds. The Greenbacks were like the Continental money issued during the Revolutionary War. Prices in paper money rose until they were more than twice as high as prices in gold or silver. Very little coin was in circulation. In order to sell its bonds the government aided in the establishment of National Banks, permitting them to issue bank notes if they bought government bonds of a value greater than the amount of the notes issued.

If the National government found difficulties in raising money, the Confederate government had difficulties still greater. It relied on the cotton crop as a means of borrowing money in Europe, but the cotton could not be exported. It also issued paper money, which lost value much faster than the Greenbacks.

Gettysburg, July, 1863. — In May, 1863, the Union army made an attempt to march overland against Richmond, only to be defeated again by Lee at Chancellorsville. But the victory was costly to the Confederates, for during the battle "Stonewall" Jackson was accidentally shot by his own men.

General Lee concluded to carry the war again into the northern states. He believed that a decisive victory near Philadelphia or Baltimore would end the struggle. The northern Democrats would rise against the Republican President. Their sons would cease volunteering in the Union

army. The bankers would refuse to lend their money. England and France would recognize the Confederacy as an independent republic.

Lee advanced, this time by way of the Shenandoah Valley, and crossed Maryland into Pennsylvania. Once his cavalry approached within three miles of Harrisburg. General George G. Meade was now in command of the Union army. He

The Gettysburg National Military Park
Showing the Battleground and Monuments to those who Fell

met Lee at the little town of Gettysburg. The two armies took up stations on parallel ridges. The Confederates were on Seminary Ridge, named for a Lutheran school situated there. The Union army was a mile away on Cemetery Ridge, where the town cemetery was located. The battle raged for two days without decisive result, although the Confederates appeared to be gaining.

On the third day, July 3, 1863, Lee decided to strike a decisive blow. General Pickett was ordered to charge the center of the Union line, which was under the command of General Hancock. For two hours before the charge 115 cannon bombarded the Union army. When Lee thought that it had been thrown into confusion, Pickett, with 15,000 Confederate veterans, advanced across a valley of orchards, fields, and

ravines, and up the slopes of the ridge. Two of the bravest officers of the Civil War were pitted against each other, Hancock against Pickett. Pickett's men advanced. Shot poured into their ranks from every side. Men fell by companies. And yet on they went, up the hill. A hundred or so reached the Union line and fought hand to hand, only to fall or be made prisoners.

The battle of Gettysburg stopped the invasion of the North. On the Fourth of July Lee slowly, painfully, sadly returned to Virginia. The crisis for the North was past. But at what a cost! Lee had left behind 28,000 men, killed, wounded, and missing; Meade, 23,000. This was the end of the fighting in Virginia in 1863.

The Capture of Vicksburg, July 3, 1863. — The third day of July, 1863, was a memorable day in the Civil War. On the same day that Meade turned Lee back, Grant captured Vicksburg. This was a natural fortress set on high bluffs, footed with marshes and rivers.

Since Grant's successes on the Mississippi in 1862, he had been preparing for the capture of Vicksburg. The Union army tried to take the town first by assault, but failing, settled down to a regular siege. The people of Vicksburg still tell of the horrors of the last weeks of the siege — how they were obliged to hide in caves to avoid bursting shells; how, finally, they were forced to eat shoe-leather to keep from starving; how fathers, brothers, husbands, and sons died in the trenches.

The Turning of the Tide. — The Confederates lost an army of 30,000 with the surrender of Vicksburg. Three states, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, were cut off from the rest of the Confederacy. Union fleets sailed up and down the Mississippi. The Mississippi Valley lay at the mercy of the Union armies.

QUESTIONS

1. What were the chief points in the Confederate line of defense at the beginning of 1862?

2. Where did Grant begin the attack on the Confederate line of defense? Describe the gunboats which assisted him. Why was the capture of Fort Henry and Fort Donelson regarded as a great loss to the Confederate cause and a great gain to the Union? What other points did the Union army of the West capture during the campaign?

3. Who captured New Orleans? Why was its capture a great loss for the Confederate States? What advantage did its capture give to the United States?

4. What did General Bragg try to do?

5. What was McClellan's plan in 1862? What would have been the result of the success of the *Merrimac?* Describe the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor.* Why were Europeans interested in the battle of the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor?*

6. In what ways was McClellan a great leader? Why was he unsuccessful? What was the result of his attempt to capture Richmond?

7. What success did Lee have in 1862? What defeat?

8. Why did Lincoln declare the slaves in the Confederate States free? What was the effect of his declaration? What change was taking place with regard to slavery in the border states? What plan did Lincoln urge on Congress?

9. How did the United States and the Confederate States obtain money with which to carry on the war?

10. Why was the victory of Lee at Chancellorsville said to be costly for the Confederates? What was his plan after this victory?

11. Describe the battle of Gettysburg. Why was the result of such great importance for the United States?

12. What success had Grant in the West? What was the result of his victory?

EXERCISES

1. Find on the map, page 412, or locate on an outline map on the board, the chief points in the Confederate line of defense at the beginning of 1862, again after the fall of Fort Donelson, and finally after the fall of Vicksburg in 1863.

2. What resemblance is there between the *Monitor* and a modern Super-Dreadnought?

Important Dates:

January 1, 1863. Lincoln declares the slaves in the Confederate States, except the parts held by the United States army, to be free.

July 3, 1863. The battle of Gettysburg and the fall of Vicksburg.

CHAPTER XXXVII

CONQUERING A PEACE

Another Gate to the Cotton States. — In the fall of 1863 the scene of war was shifted to eastern Tennessee. The prize of victory was Chattanooga and the passes south of it through the Appalachians into northern Georgia. After gaining possession of the city, the Union army was defeated at Chickamauga Creek, a few miles southward. Only the courage and skill of General George H. Thomas, a Virginian, who commanded the left of the Union line, saved the army from ruin. The rest of the army was retreating in disorder, and his troops were hemmed in on three sides, but he could not be driven from his position. On that day he won the name of the "Rock of Chickamauga."

Soon after the battle of Chickamauga, General Grant took command. Supported by Sherman, Thomas, and Hooker,[1] he attacked the Confederates on Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain. Again General Thomas's men covered themselves with glory. Without waiting for orders, they attacked the crest of the ridge immediately in front of them, clambering over rocks and tree trunks in the face of a withering fire. The story of their successful charge deserves a place beside that of Pickett's charge at Gettysburg.

The victories around Chattanooga were as important as the capture of Vicksburg. The gateway into the older cotton

[1] Hooker's army of 23,000 was sent from Virginia, on the railroads, by way of Louisville and Nashville, a distance of 1192 miles, in seven days. Longstreet's army had been sent by rail to reinforce the Confederates before Chickamauga. Its route was also roundabout, through the Carolinas and Georgia.

states was open. Would a Northern army pass through into the very heart of the South? This question troubled the Confederate leaders at the beginning of 1864.

Grant Commander-in-Chief. — Lincoln once said that it was a bad plan to change horses while crossing a stream, but several times he had been obliged to change commanders of the army. He was always on the lookout for a general whom he could fully trust. For two years he had been watching the straight-forward, modest, untiring soldier of Fort Donelson, Vicksburg, and Chattanooga. In February, 1864, he made Grant Lieutenant-general and placed him in command of the whole Union army, in the East as well as the West. Sherman was given the immediate command of the western armies, while Meade still commanded the Army of the Potomac. Grant, assisted by Meade, undertook in May, 1864, an advance upon Richmond. On the same day Sherman began the invasion of Georgia. For the first time all the Union armies were to aid one another in carrying out a common plan. The Confederates could no longer shift troops by rail from Virginia to the Southwest or from the West to Virginia.

Ulysses S. Grant

The Armies in 1864. — The armies of both North and South had long been composed mainly of veteran soldiers. The losses had to be made up by new recruits, but these untried men learned quickly by the experience and example of the older soldiers. The Northern army was gaining steadily in numbers, while the Southern army was decreasing, because the North had a far greater population upon which to draw.

In 1864 the Union armies contained more than twice as many soldiers as the Confederate armies.

Grant's Advance. — In the campaign of 1864 Grant was true to his reputation as a fighter. His plan was to march overland upon Richmond. He outnumbered Lee two to one, but much of the time Lee had the advantage of fighting behind earthworks which defended every approach to the Confederate capital. The first struggle took place in the Wilderness, not far from the battle-field of Chancellorsville. It was not a defeat for Grant, but neither was it a victory.

FIELD-WORKS FOR DEFENSE
A necessity of modern warfare

Other commanders might have withdrawn in order to make a new start, but Grant ordered his army to move around the Confederate right. He resolved to hammer constantly at the obstacle and wear out his antagonist. Lee's losses were more costly than Grant's, because the gaps in his ranks could no longer be filled. Grant lost in the summer campaign as many men as Lee had in his whole army, filling their places with recruits. Before summer was over he had laid siege to Richmond, though he had not succeeded in breaking through Lee's lines of defense.

Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley. — As at the time of McClellan's advance in 1862, a Confederate army under General Early was sent down the Shenandoah Valley to throw

Washington into a panic and prevent reinforcements being sent to Grant. Grant sent General Sheridan, who became famous as a cavalry commander, to drive Early off. Sheridan had twice the force of Early, and before the harvest season was over had cleared the Valley of Confederates. He also laid waste the Valley. Barns, mills, and many houses were burned. The horses, mules, and cattle were driven away. Grant and Sheridan meant that the farmers of the Shenandoah should never again furnish Lee with provisions. It was said that a crow flying over the country would have to carry his provisions with him.

The Taking of Atlanta. — While Grant hammered away at Lee's lines around Richmond, and Sheridan laid the beautiful Shenandoah Valley in blackened ruins, Sherman carried out his part of the plan. His army advanced from Chattanooga into Georgia. The Confederates destroyed the railroad as they retreated, and Sherman rebuilt it. Upon that railroad he depended for food and military supplies, sent from Louisville through Nashville and Chattanooga. As Sherman had 100,000 men and 35,000 horses, he calculated that to deliver food and forage regularly would have required 36,800 wagons, each drawn by six mules. The telegraph also followed his advance, so that almost every day he was able to send word to General Grant of his progress. On September 2 he succeeded in capturing Atlanta, which, although it was not a large city, was the chief manufacturing town for military supplies in the Confederacy.

Farragut at Mobile. — While Sherman was still fighting about Atlanta, Farragut, with a strong fleet, attacked the defenses of Mobile, Alabama, one of the few Southern ports which still remained open. His ships had to fight not only the Confederate forts, but also an iron-clad ram, the *Tennessee*, almost as powerful as the *Merrimac*. After a severe struggle the *Tennessee* was taken and the forts surrendered.

From Atlanta to the Sea. — After remaining in Atlanta several weeks, Sherman obtained Grant's consent to a bold plan of marching across Georgia to the sea. General Thomas, with a part of the army, returned to Chattanooga to defend Tennessee, for a Confederate army had started northward, hoping to draw Sherman after it. That army Thomas destroyed near Nashville in December.

Before Sherman left Atlanta, storehouses, mills, machine shops — everything which contributed supplies to the Confederate armies — were destroyed. As his army swept across Georgia it left a track of desolation nearly 60 miles wide. The Georgia farmers had been raising corn instead of cotton, and they furnished a large part of the food for Lee's army at Richmond. Sherman, like Sheridan in the Shenandoah, left nothing that could be of any use to an army. Bridges were burned, railroads were torn up, and the rails were heated and twisted.

Sherman's army marched twelve or fifteen miles a day. There was no army to oppose, and Sherman captured Savannah in time to offer it to Lincoln as a Christmas gift.

Reëlection of Lincoln. — Before the campaigns of 1864 were over a new election had taken place. Many Republican politicians, unmindful of the great work that Lincoln had done, planned to set him aside and put forward some one else as the candidate of the Republican party. When the convention met they discovered that the people believed in Lincoln. The opposition dwindled into nothing, and he was triumphantly nominated. The Democrats nominated General McClellan, declared the war a failure, and urged the summoning of delegates from all the states to a convention which should restore peace. The news of the capture of Atlanta, of Farragut's capture of Mobile, and of Sheridan's victory over Early in the Shenandoah put new life into Lincoln's cause and he was reëlected.

Drawing the Net on Lee. — Sherman's march from Atlanta to the sea destroyed Lee's last important source of supplies. The end of the war was near. In January, 1865, Sherman's army continued its journey. This time it marched northward across South Carolina and North Carolina. Sherman was slowly drawing the net closer upon Lee.

Surrender of Lee, April 9, 1865.— Grant had not ceased his attacks on Lee during the winter. Food and ammunition were slowly giving out in Richmond. Lee's army was finally reduced to parched corn for food. On April 2 Lee abandoned Richmond. He could hold it against Grant no longer. One week later the two met at Appomattox Court House, and arranged terms of surrender. Lee's army had melted away. Only a few more than 25,000 of his once magnificent force remained to lay down arms on April 9. Grant's terms were generous, as Lincoln wanted them to be. The Confederate soldiers were to retire quietly and peaceably to their homes. The men should take their horses, because, said Grant, "They will need them for the spring plowing and farm work." General Lee in a simple and manly manner bade his men farewell. "Men," he said, "we have fought through the war together. I have done my best for you. My heart is too full to say more."

Assassination of Lincoln, April 14, 1865. — Friday, April 14, was a day of happiness in the North and of mourning in the South. The day was the fourth anniversary of the fall of Fort Sumter. The war was over. The South had failed to establish a separate republic. The United States was reunited in name, at least, if not yet in heart. The President and Mrs. Lincoln went to the theater with a small party of friends. During the play, a half-crazed actor, Booth by name, shot the President. In the morning Lincoln died. The country's rejoicing was turned to the deepest mourning. The death of the generous leader, in whose heart was no bitterness

against the South, was the greatest disaster of the Civil War. The divided nation needed his services to guide it through the problems of reconstruction. Once, to those who were planning revenge and persecution, Lincoln had gently said, "Judge not that ye be not judged."

ABRAHAM LINCOLN
After the statue by St. Gaudens

The Cost of the Civil War. — No one knows what the Civil War cost the American people. Nearly a million of the strongest men in the North and South lost their lives. Hundreds of thousands of men labored for four years, not to produce things which the world needed, but to kill or capture one another. Much of the wealth which the Southern people had accumulated was swept away, and they and their children were obliged to start anew as they had in colonial days. The American people are still paying debts which the war caused. Billions of dollars have already been spent. It would have been far cheaper to have paid the owners of the slaves the whole value of their laborers, twice over.

After all, it was not a matter of money. The Southerners believed that it was a struggle for existence, for rights inherited from their fathers, especially for the right to govern themselves. The people of the North felt that saving the Union was still more important. They came to look upon slavery as the great stumbling-block to a better national life. There seemed to be no court of final appeal except war.

QUESTIONS

1. What victories did the United States win around Chattanooga? Why were these as important as the capture of Vicksburg?

2. Whom did Lincoln put in command of the Union army in 1864? What was the new commander's plan for 1864? Why could Grant afford to fight when he lost more men in battle than Lee?

3. Why did Sheridan devastate the Shenandoah Valley? What was Sherman's part in the campaign of 1864? Of what advantage was the railroad and telegraph to Sherman?

4. What important port did Farragut capture? Why was its loss a great disaster to the South?

5. What was the object of Sherman's march from Atlanta to the Sea? How did he then proceed to draw the net upon Lee? Why did Lee finally give up? What terms did he obtain from Grant?

6. How was the rejoicing of the North at the end of the war turned into mourning?

7. What did the Civil War cost the country?

EXERCISES

1. Find on a map of Eastern Tennessee the places mentioned in the paragraph on "Another Gate to the Cotton States."

2. Locate the railroad over which Sherman obtained his supplies in the campaign against Atlanta.

3. Why was the South defeated in its attempt to form a republic?

Important Dates:

April 9, 1865. The surrender of Lee.

April 14, 1865. The assassination of Lincoln.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

PEACE AND ITS PROBLEMS

Return of the Soldiers. — The soldiers of the Union and Confederate armies were sent to their homes as rapidly as possible. Over a million men in 1865 gave up the life of camps, marches, and battles, and began to work on farms or plantations, in shops, factories, or offices. The Southern soldier made his way home, commonly on foot. He found the farm grown up to weeds, the fences down, wagons gone or fallen into pieces. Cities like Richmond and Atlanta were in ruins. Business was at a standstill. The outlook was discouraging.

The return of the Northern soldier was altogether different. His cause was successful. His states had seen little or nothing of hostile armies. Farms had been extended, new mills had been built, and thousands of immigrants had helped to keep industry active.

Growth of the North. — During the war the North more than made up for the loss of the Southern market by selling corn and wheat in England and in Europe. The amount of corn exported was doubled in the ten years from 1860 to 1870, while the amount of wheat was tripled. The place of the farmer's sons who enlisted in the army was taken by machinery. By 1865, 250,000 reapers were in use, each of which could cut nearly an acre an hour. The amount of work done is also partly explained by the great numbers of immigrants. The population of the states in the valley of the upper Mississippi was half again as large in 1870 as in 1860, in spite of the losses by war.

The increase in Northern manufactures during this period was equally rapid. Their value grew three times as fast as from 1850 to 1860. New mills were needed to make guns, cannon, armor, and other military supplies. Great quantities of iron ore were brought from Lake Superior to Chicago, Cleveland, Buffalo, and Pittsburgh. Other kinds of manufacturing flourished. One who watched the busy life of a Northern city would scarcely have imagined that a terrible war was raging three or four hundred miles to the south.

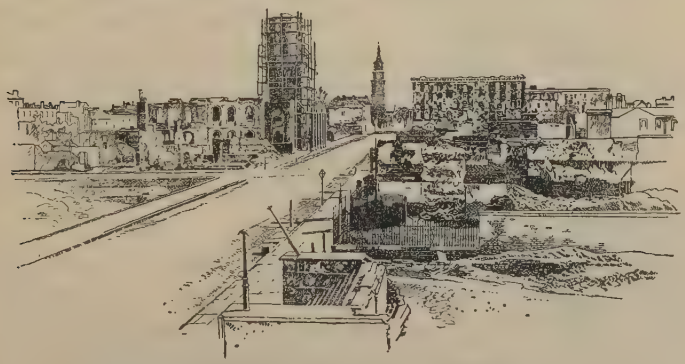
Scene in the Oil District of Pennsylvania in 1868

New industries were also begun. A little while before the war petroleum was found in several regions by drilling deep wells. In 1862, 3,000,000 barrels of petroleum were taken from wells, chiefly in northwestern Pennsylvania. The crude oil was sent to Cleveland, Erie, Pittsburgh, and other cities and refined, making kerosene, gasoline, naphtha, and other useful products.

Soon after the war Congress carried out the promise made by the Republican party to give every man a free homestead of 160 acres if he would settle upon it. The government officials saw that the pioneer who cleared the land for crops was doing a work no less important than that of those who

built railroads. Land had been given for railroads; after 1862 it was given freely for farms. By 1880, 65,000,000 acres had been used for this purpose.

The discovery of gold in Nevada started a rush of settlers to that region like that to California in 1849. Nevada grew so rapidly that Congress admitted it into the Union in 1864. Settlements were also begun in the region since included in Montana, Idaho, Colorado, and Arizona.[1]



THE RUINS OF CHARLESTON

Condition of the South. — In the South, on the other hand, the people felt all the hardships of war. Cotton, the principal crop, could not be sold. The bales were used for breastworks or lay exposed to the weather. If Union armies passed where cotton was stored, they seized it. Many of the

[1] Shortly before the opening of the Civil War a line of overland coaches began carrying the mail and passengers regularly from the Missouri River to New Mexico, California, and Oregon, following the trails of the prairie schooners. Short lines were started to the chief mining camps of Nevada, Idaho, Montana, and Colorado. It required 22 or 23 days and nights of continuous traveling to reach California. The heavy four-mule stage-coaches were dragged at a galloping pace over desert and mountain roads. It was anything but a comfortable journey, sleeping in the seats, halting ten minutes for meals, and watching at all times for attacks from hostile Indians. The "Pony Express," a line of fleet horsemen, carried the more important mail over the same route in about eight days. In 1861 a telegraph line joined the East and the West in easy communication, and soon displaced the "Pony Express."

farmers gave up raising cotton and raised corn to feed the Confederate armies. They were paid in Confederate paper money, which sank lower and lower in value. Mrs. Davis kept a diary in Richmond, and in 1864 she wrote that a turkey cost her $60, a pair of shoes $150, and a barrel of flour $300. In 1865 this money was worthless paper.

During the war most of the able-bodied men were in the army. At least a third of them were killed or crippled. In their absence the work was done by the old men, women, children, and slaves. They also had to learn to make articles which they could no longer obtain by trade with the North or with England.

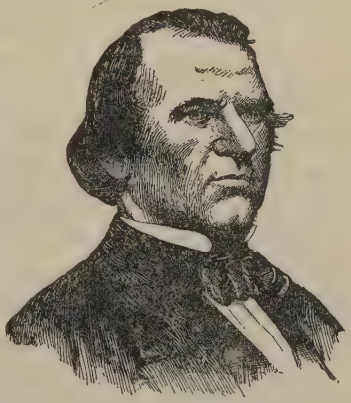
People who lived in the South at that time tell how they parched rye and dried blackberry leaves to take the place of coffee and tea. The women drew out the spinning wheels and hand-looms and made clothing. They found herbs and roots to furnish dye stuffs. The old men and the more skilful slaves learned to make shoes and ordinary tools. In ways of living they went back to the old colonial times.

The South's Hardest Question. — When peace came the Southerners were obliged to rebuild what had been torn down or burned during the war. But this was not their greatest difficulty. They had to find laborers. The negroes were still among them, but no longer as slaves. The rich planter who once owned a thousand slaves could not order the negroes to work for him any more than could his neighbor who had never owned one.

Another difficulty nearly as great was, How should the states which had declared their independence, or, in other words, had seceded, be treated after the Confederate armies had surrendered? Both matters should have been settled by the wisest men of North and South, men like Lincoln, with malice toward none. He, better than other Northern leaders, understood the South and the problem of peace. He was

ready to answer all questions in the spirit of fairness and charity.

A New Leader. — The death of President Lincoln raised the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, to the Presidency at one of the most difficult times in the history of the United States. Johnson had been a poor boy. He had scarcely any education, but he had energy and ability, and soon became a leader in Tennessee. The politicians chose him as Vice-President in 1864, because he could win a few Southern votes for the party. None of them expected that he would become President. He was rugged, narrow-minded, and quarrelsome.



ANDREW JOHNSON

The leaders of the Union party in Congress were little, if any, better fitted than Johnson for the new tasks. Thaddeus Stevens in the House and Charles Sumner in the Senate believed that the Southern people intended to rebel again or restore slavery.

The Freedmen. — The negroes had not learned the meaning of freedom, when it was suddenly given to them. The story is told that William Lloyd Garrison visited a camp of freedmen near Charleston. "Well, my friends," he said, "you are free at last; let us give three cheers for freedom!" When he tried to lead the cheering the negroes stood in dead silence. To some freedom meant the right to be idle the rest of their lives. A great many thought that it meant a division of the old plantations among them. They frequently asked, "When is the land to be divided?" They heard

rumors that the government would soon give each one forty acres of land and a mule.

Those who crowded to the towns and camps that were established by the army, or who roved about the country, suffered terribly from poverty and disease. The consequence was that as many negroes died within two years after their emancipation as there were Northern soldiers who lost their lives in the whole Civil War.

Frederick Douglas, one of their own race who had escaped from slavery and educated himself, said of the freedman in 1865, "He was free from the old plantation, but he had nothing but the dusty road under his feet. He was free from the old quarter that once gave him shelter, but a slave to the rains of summer and to the frosts of winter. He . . . was turned loose, naked, hungry, and destitute to the open sky." There were 4,000,000 of these people in 1865, more than whites and blacks together in the entire nation in 1783.

In his Emancipation Proclamation President Lincoln had freed only the slaves living in the states under the control of the Confederacy. Maryland and Missouri voluntarily freed their slaves in 1864 and 1865. By the end of 1865 slavery remained lawful only in Kentucky and Delaware, and even here it had nearly disappeared. Finally, in December, 1865, an amendment was added to the national Constitution forever forbidding slavery anywhere in the United States.[1]

The Freedmen's Bureau.—The leaders in Congress did not believe that the Southerners would treat their former slaves fairly, and established the Freedmen's Bureau to watch over the negroes, distribute relief, and establish schools. The purpose of the Bureau was excellent, but many of its agents taught the negroes that the Southerners meant to oppress them. The result was that the two races, which needed to

[1] Three years later the Fourteenth Amendment gave the freedmen all rights of citizenship except that of voting.

be friendly, were driven farther apart. Besides, the fact that the government distributed supplies convinced the freedmen that they were not obliged to work, and led multitudes to leave the plantations in the midst of the summer of 1865, making the situation worse.

The Plantation System breaks down. — The planters, without either slaves or free laborers on whom to depend, and without money to hire them, were "land-poor" after the Civil War. Some sold the plantations for what they could get, a fourth or a tenth of the former value, and made a living in some other manner. Whether the planters sold the plantations or not, the land was divided into small farms, and rented on shares to white tenants or negroes.

The poorer farmers had a better chance to make a living after the plantations were broken up. They did not suffer from competition with planters owning vast amounts of rich land and controlling large gangs of slaves. Better methods of cultivation were introduced, so that by 1870 they were raising 50 pounds more of cotton on an acre than the planters had raised under slavery. The building of new railroads helped them to market their crops, as the railroads had helped the small farmers in the Northwest.

Reorganizing the Southern State Governments. — As the Civil War drew to a close, President Lincoln prepared to make the way easy for the reorganization of the seceded states and for their re-admission to the Union. "Forgive and forget" was his rule in such matters. President Johnson adopted Lincoln's plan and took steps in the summer of 1865 to reorganize the governments of the Southern states and to hold elections for Congress almost as if there had been no war.

Johnson blundered in dealing with Congress and in trying to induce it to carry out his plan. Men like Stevens and Sumner distrusted the leaders in the Confederacy and wished to keep them from gaining control of their governments. On

the other hand, the Southern people made some mistakes. The leaders were defiant toward the North. They advocated harsh and unfair laws in order to make the negroes work. Their mistakes and the blunders of Johnson combined to drive the moderate men in Congress over to the side of Stevens and Sumner. Congress, instead of following Lincoln's plan of generosity and charity toward the Confederate States, adopted Stevens's plan in which vengeance and distrust were the main motives.

Stevens's Vengeance and Sumner's Ideal. — In 1867 ten Southern states were divided into five military districts. Tennessee escaped, because it had already made terms with Congress and had been re-admitted into the Union. Army officers ruled the districts as though the war was still going on. Many of the Southern leaders were deprived of their right to vote in the elections, while their former slaves were given the privilege. Finally, when the states had forbidden slavery, had ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, and had adopted negro suffrage, they were allowed to reënter the Union. From 1867 to 1870 the states fulfilled the hard conditions. This satisfied Thaddeus Stevens, who detested the Southern whites, and Charles Sumner, who wished to give the negroes the privilege of voting.

Congress and the President. — President Johnson opposed the Congressional treatment of the South. He vetoed every important measure which Congress passed, and denounced its leaders in words more vigorous than polite. Congress then passed each measure over his veto. Feeling became so bitter that Congress turned from its work of keeping the South dependent upon the North to make sure that the President was dependent on Congress. In 1868 some of his more violent enemies accused him before the Senate of "high crimes and misdemeanors." Had he been convicted, he would have been removed from the Presidency. It was fortunately

impossible to obtain the necessary two-thirds vote for conviction. Before Johnson's term expired, in 1869, Congress proposed the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, adopted a year later, giving the negroes the same privileges in voting which the white people had. Up to that time only six Northern states had allowed the negroes to vote.

Slaves become Rulers. — In South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, the new voters outnumbered the white voters. In Georgia the two were about equal. For several years the cotton states were ruled by the former slaves.

" Carpet-Baggers." — Many Northern men were attracted to the South after the Civil War by the cheapness of the land or by the chance of being chosen to office by the votes of the freedmen. The Southern people called them " carpet-baggers " because they arrived with little more than a carpet-bag or satchel, in which their belongings were packed. They were men of all kinds, some honest, others dishonest, some noble-minded, others rascals. The carpet-baggers and the negroes held the offices and governed the states as completely as if the former rulers of the South had vanished.[1]

Carpet-Bag Government. — The new rulers knew almost nothing about governing a country, and least of all one in the ruined condition of the South after the war. The members of the legislatures voted themselves large salaries. They ordered at public expense fine clothes, laces, perfumes, expensive wines and cigars, jewelry and furniture, horses and carriages. As one said, they believed that the state should take care of its statesmen. There were even worse things than extravagance and misuse of state money. Men bought justice and favors like merchandise. The debts of the

[1] A few Southern white men joined with the negroes and carpet-baggers. Such were held in great contempt by their white neighbors, and were called " scalawags."

states were increased four, five, six, or seven-fold, under such ignorant and corrupt rulers.

Ku Klux Klan. — As the United States troops kept the Southern people from openly resisting their "carpet-bag" government, the Southern people formed secret societies, named the Ku Klux Klan, Pale Faces, White Brotherhood, and the like. Whatever the name, the objects were the same: to keep lawless negroes from stealing and other crimes, to frighten them from voting and holding offices, and to drive carpet-baggers out of the country. Some of the disguises which the members of these societies wore were terrifying. Their faces were masked, and they were shrouded in white. Even their horses were covered with long white gowns. The members rode around the negro cabins in the dead of night. Lawless men frequently made use of the same disguise to commit robbery and murder. In the North it was generally believed that all these secret societies of the South were organized to terrify, rob, and murder the negroes.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

Southerners again rule the South. — The rule of the carpet-baggers lasted in some parts of the South until 1877. As long as Federal soldiers were kept in the Southern states the carpet-baggers remained in control. They had persuaded the freedmen that the Republican party had freed them, and that the Democratic party wished to place them back in slavery. Most of the negroes, therefore, voted the Republican ticket. General Grant, who was President from 1869 to 1877, thought that the soldiers should not be withdrawn. But

Rutherford B. Hayes, who was chosen President in the election of 1876 withdrew the army as soon as he was inaugurated.[1] The Southern people quickly drove the remaining carpet-baggers from power and took complete control themselves. From that time the votes of the freedmen, if they took the trouble to vote, have had little influence upon the government of the Southern states.

The End of an Era. — By 1876 the work of restoring the Southern states to their full rights in the Union was almost

Main Building at Philadelphia Exposition, 1876

completed. It was also just a hundred years since the Declaration of Independence. The year was therefore chosen as a good time to review what the country had learned how to do. A great fair, called the Centennial Exposition, was held in Philadelphia. Nearly every state took some part in it. The South showed the progress that it was making with free labor. The farms, mining towns, and ranches of the West displayed their work. Manufacturers vied with one another in showing their wares and explaining the methods

[1] The results of the election were very close. In three Southern states both parties claimed the victory. As the election turned on these contested votes, Congress referred the matter to a commission of 15, which gave the votes of these states to Hayes. The Democratic candidate was Samuel J. Tilden of New York.

of making them. New inventions were exhibited, such as the airbrake, the typewriter, and the telephone.

Foreign nations also took part in the Exposition. The products of the skilled workers of almost all countries were placed beside the wares of American workmen. They included woolens, china, steel from England and Germany, laces and silks from France, rugs and tapestries from Turkey and Persia, carvings in wood and ivory from India, China, and Japan. The art exhibits of Europe aroused new interest in art among Americans. The school methods of the old world, especially the work in the kindergarten and in manual training, taught American schoolmen to improve their own system of education.

All the displays of the Exposition were housed in great buildings constructed for them. Millions of people, many of whom had never traveled, visited the Exposition and saw the work of the whole world spread out before them. They gained a better idea not only of what had been accomplished, but also of the improvements still to be made. So the Centennial Exposition marked the end of one era and the beginning of another.

QUESTIONS

1. What conditions did the Southern soldiers find on returning home? The Northern soldiers? In what ways had the North grown during the Civil War? What markets had the Northern farmers found to take the place of the Southern markets? What new industry sprang up in the North during the war?

2. What new method of using public lands did Congress adopt in 1862? What besides free lands induced men to go West during the Civil War?

3. Describe the conditions at the South during the war. In what ways did the South go backward?

4. What hard questions did the country have to meet at the close of the war? Why was Lincoln's death a great misfortune to the South?

5. Were the freedmen prepared to use their freedom wisely? How did they come to suffer greatly? What was the object of the Freedmen's Bureau? What was the result?

6. What became of the plantation system? Who profited most from the change?

7. What influenced Sumner and Stevens in reorganizing the Southern states after the Civil War? What did the states do which aroused the Northern leaders?

8. What terms of admission into the Union did Congress require of the former Confederate states? Why did President Johnson and Congress quarrel? What did the House of Representatives try to do with him?

9. What privilege did the Fifteenth Amendment give the negroes? Who were the carpet-baggers? How did the new rulers of the South manage the government of the states?

10. What was the Ku Klux Klan? How long did the rule of the carpet-baggers and freedmen last? What effect had President Hayes's removal of the army?

EXERCISES

1. Wherever possible, learn from a soldier of the Civil War what changes he found on returning home after the war.

2. In what ways did the Centennial Exposition benefit the United States?

Important Dates:

1862. Congress begins the policy of giving free homesteads to pioneers in the West.

1867. Congress fixes the terms of re-admission of Southern states into the Union.

1876. The Centennial Exposition is held in Philadelphia.

CHAPTER XXXIX

NEIGHBORS AND RIVALS

"Alabama" Claims. — The war had left other unsettled questions. The most important grew out of the fact that the British government had permitted ships to be built in British shipyards and sold to the Confederates. The damage done by these ships, especially by the *Alabama*, amounted to millions of dollars. The dispute might easily have led to war, because there were many Englishmen who wished to fight rather than acknowledge that they were wrong. There were Americans, too, like Charles Sumner, possessed by the wild idea that England might be compelled to pay $200,000,000 and give up Canada, on the ground that her sympathy for the South had prolonged the war and had caused the United States great loss and suffering. Fortunately, both countries had statesmen with common sense and common honesty. The English Prime Minister, William E. Gladstone, and the American Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, agreed to leave the settlement of the dispute to five arbitrators. England and the United States each chose one, and Brazil, Italy, and Switzerland also chose one each. In 1872 they decided that England had injured the United States to the amount of $15,500,000 through the destruction of ships. The decision was unpopular in England, but the English government paid the money promptly. The way in which the dispute was ended set a noble example to the world of a method better than war for settling such questions.

Question of Mexico. — The United States had a question to settle with France, the ruler of which was Napoleon III,

a nephew of the great Napoleon. Europeans had many claims against the Mexican government, some of them like those which Americans had had before their war with Mexico. England and Spain decided in 1861 to join France in forcing the Mexicans to pay. Soon, however, England and Spain discovered that the Emperor Napoleon had other plans in mind and they refused to have anything further to do with the enterprise. The fact was that Napoleon meant to set up an empire in Mexico strong enough to check the spread of English-speaking peoples in North America. He also thought that a canal should be dug through the Isthmus of Panama, making a waterway as important as the Bosphorus, which flows between Europe and Asia.

Napoleon chose a time for carrying out his dreams when the United States was too busy with the Civil War to interfere. He sent thousands of soldiers to Mexico and spent millions of money. In 1864 he set up Maximilian, brother of the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, as Emperor of Mexico. The United States had protested against his conduct, but in vain. When the Civil War closed and the United States had several hundred thousand veteran soldiers under arms and ready for action, the Emperor Napoleon wisely listened to the protests and withdrew his troops, leaving the unfortunate Maximilian to his fate. Two years later Maximilian was captured by the Mexican republicans and shot, on the ground that he had ordered republican prisoners shot as rebels. The action of the United States showed that the Monroe Doctrine had not been forgotten.

Purchase of Alaska. — In 1862, the year President Lincoln planned to emancipate the slaves, Alexander II, Czar of Russia, proclaimed that the Russian peasants should be freed. They were not slaves like the southern negroes, but their labor was owned by the nobles who possessed the lands on which they lived. They were serfs, like the English and

French peasants in the Middle Ages. By this act of 1862 Alexander also won the name of "Emancipator." It was natural that he should sympathize with the United States during the Civil War. The North felt grateful for this Russian sympathy, especially as there was danger of war with England and France.

After the Civil War was over the Russian government unexpectedly offered to sell Alaska. Secretary Seward, a member of Lincoln's cabinet who had been retained by President Johnson, received the proposal and arranged a treaty of purchase. Americans at that time supposed that Alaska was a frozen region, its inhabitants Esquimaux, and "its chief products polar bears and glaciers." Congress was in the midst of its quarrel with Johnson and unwilling to carry out any plan proposed by his administration. Sumner believed that Seward's bargain was a good one and his influence in the Senate was strong. Besides, many Congressmen remembered Russia's friendship and wished to show proper appreciation. The treaty was therefore accepted in April, 1867. The new territory was twice as large as Texas, and as large as the original thirteen states together. The cost was $7,200,000, which the natural wealth of Alaska, unknown at that time, has many times repaid, though its resources in gold, coal, fish, and agricultural products have barely been touched.

A United Canada. — The talk about the seizure or conquest of Canada, which was common in the United States after the Civil War, alarmed the Canadians and they resolved to strengthen themselves by union. In 1867 there were six British colonies in North America: Canada, divided into two provinces, — Quebec and Ontario, — Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, and, far away on the Pacific Coast, British Columbia. Between the East and the West were three great natural basins, the Hudson

THE UNITED STATES, CANADA, AND MEXICO

Alaska and its islands, if laid down on the United States, would touch the Alantic Ocean on the southeast, Canada on the north, and the Pacific Ocean on the west

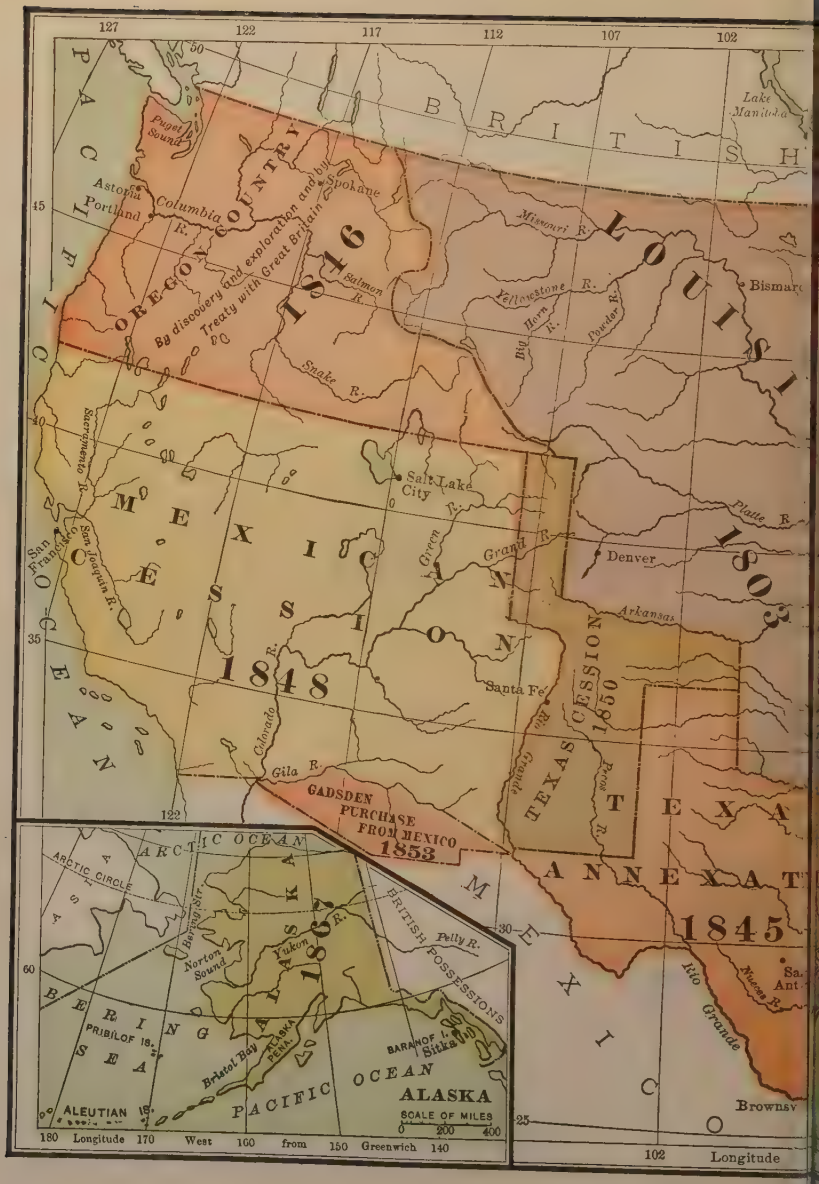
Bay country, the Winnipeg region, and the Mackenzie River Valley, all unsettled. A great convention of delegates met in Quebec and drew up a plan of union. The meeting recalls to mind the Federal Convention at Philadelphia in 1787. In 1867 the new union was put into effect under the name, Dominion of Canada. This was like the English system of

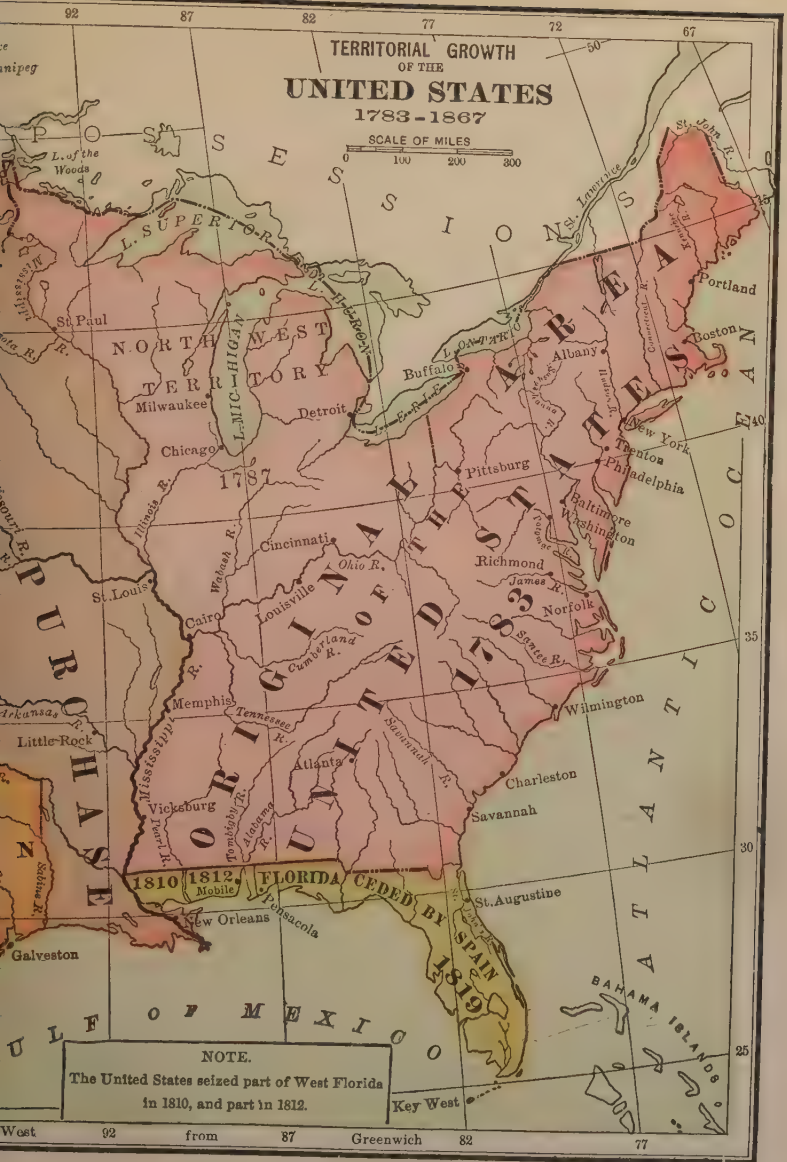
government, although in some ways it resembled that of the United States. The Dominion had a parliament instead of a congress, and instead of a president a prime minister who must be satisfactory to the majority in parliament.

Only four of the provinces united in 1867. Four years later British Columbia, and shortly afterward Prince Edward Island, were admitted, much as the United States permits new states to enter the Union. Newfoundland, alone of the old colonies, remained outside of Canada. The government of Canada had a vast western territory out of which to make other states in later years. The growth of the Canadian Northwest is a part of the westward movement in American history.

A Greater Britain. — The constitution which the Canadians drew up was agreed to by the British parliament. A governor-general was sent to represent Great Britain in Canada, but he was not to interfere with the right of the Canadians to govern themselves. They paid no taxes to the mother country and even charged import duties upon British products brought into the Dominion. All this was very different from the bitter dispute a century before between the British parliament and the colonies on the Atlantic shore. A new idea had taken possession of the leaders of Great Britain. They now thought that the Englishman who chose to live beyond the seas in Canada, South Africa, Australia, or any other country, should enjoy the same rights he would have at home. The expenses of the Empire, which troubled the men of 1765 so much, were paid from taxes collected in Great Britain, unless the colonies offered to bear a share.

The change in views of the English leaders was mainly due to the adoption by parliament of new "reform" bills. These extended the reforms in government begun by the "Great Reform" bill of 1832, until almost every man in the land possessed the right to vote. Representation in parliament was also more fairly distributed. The government remained a


127
122
117
112
107
102
50
45
40
35
30
25
PACIFIC OCEAN
BRITISH
Lake Manitoba
Puget Sound
Astoria
Portland
Columbia R.
OREGON COUNTRY
By discovery and exploration and by Treaty with Great Britain
1846
Spokane
Salmon R.
Snake R.
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Big Horn R.
Powder R.
Bismarck
LOUISIANA PURCHASE
1803
Sacramento R.
San Francisco
San Joaquin R.
Salt Lake City
Green R.
Grand R.
Platte R.
Denver
Arkansas
MEXICAN CESSION
1848
Santa Fe
Rio Grande
TEXAS CESSION
1850
Pecos R.
Colorado R.
Gila R.
GADSDEN PURCHASE FROM MEXICO
1853
TEXAS
ANNEXATION
1845
MEXICO
Nueces R.
San Antonio
Brownsville
ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC CIRCLE
ALASKA
1867
Barrow Str.
Norton Sound
Yukon R.
British Possessions
Petty R.
BERING SEA
PRIBILOF IS.
Bristol Bay
YUKON TERR.
BARANHOF I.
Sitka
PACIFIC OCEAN
ALEUTIAN IS.
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400
180 Longitude 170 West 160 from 150 Greenwich 140
102 Longitude



E. D. Servoss, Eng'r, N. Y.

monarchy, that is, a king or queen reigned, but it really became a democracy or government by the people. The representatives of the people in parliament improved many of the old laws: protecting the workmen in the factories against accident, shortening the hours of labor, especially of women and children, and making it easier to purchase farms. In such ways the British government was becoming wiser and more just, while its empire was becoming greater in extent.

Civil War in Germany. — While the United States was torn by a terrible struggle between the North and the South, a civil war of another kind raged in Germany. The states into which the Germans were grouped were almost as independent as if they had been separate countries. The principal ones were Prussia, Bavaria, and Austria. Altogether there were 38 states, 11 of them large. Their union was called a confederation. Their wars with one another were caused by attempts of the two greatest states, Prussia and Austria, to strengthen the confederation and take the lead in its affairs. One short war occurred in 1864 and another in 1866. In the second war Prussia fought against Austria and nearly all the other states and was victorious. The consequence was the formation of a North German Confederation and the exclusion of Austria from Germany. Four years later, during a war of Germany, led by Prussia, against France, the South German states entered the confederation, which was changed into the German Empire with the King of Prussia as emperor. Germany, from being a loose confederation, had now become one of the strongest nations of the world.

France a Republic. — The Emperor Napoleon III, who had tried to overthrow the republic of Mexico, was himself overthrown in 1870, and a republic founded in France. He had been led foolishly into a war with Germany, had been badly defeated, and taken prisoner. Many Frenchmen wished to

recall to the throne a descendant of their ancient kings, but a majority of the people were in favor of ruling themselves with a president as their chief magistrate. The constitution which they adopted was more nearly like that of England than that of the United States, for they have a prime minister, whose power is greater than that of the president.

United Italy. — The same years saw a union of all the Italian states under Victor Emmanuel as king. Until 1859 Italy, like Germany, had been divided into several kingdoms or principalities. The northeastern part of the country, including the beautiful city of Venice, was ruled by the Emperor of Austria. For more than half a century the Italians had been dreaming of an Italy which should be united and should manage its own affairs. The dream, like so many others, could be realized only after many battles, but 1871, which saw a united German Empire, also saw a united Kingdom of Italy.

Austria-Hungary. — Austria, which was driven out of Italy and Germany, learned lessons from defeat and, prepared to live on better terms with Hungary, united with it under the rule of Francis Joseph. For many years the Empire of Austria had tried to manage the Kingdom of Hungary. Now the leaders of both nations made an ingenious arrangement by which they might be united toward all the world but independent toward each other.

Triumph of Union. — The history of Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, as well as of the United States, shows that union was an idea which influenced men deeply. Great united nations meant keener rivalries in the future. The success of the United States in the Civil War in preserving the Union increased the respect of the Old World for the Republic. European governments agreed for the first time to accept the American plan of naturalizing immigrants. They promised to treat as American citizens, rather than as

runaway subjects, those who had resided in the United States five years and who had renounced their former allegiance. But it was understood that if the new citizens returned to their native land and lived in it for two years, they again became its citizens and ceased to be Americans.

QUESTIONS

1. What were the *Alabama* Claims? How were they settled?
2. What excuse had France for sending an army into Mexico? What plan had the Emperor of France formed? How was the question settled?
3. How did Alexander II of Russia obtain the name of Emancipator? How did the United States come to possess Alaska?
4. Why did the Canadian provinces form the Union or Dominion of Canada? Describe the government of Canada. What provinces formed the Union? What one has never joined the Union?
5. What is England's new way of treating her colonies? Does she require them to pay taxes? What changes have been made in the British government?
6. What caused the Civil War in Germany? What was the result?
7. What change in government took place in France? In what way is the government of France more like that of England than that of the United States?
8. What did the Italians do about the same time? What arrangement did Austria and Hungary make?
9. Which were the great united nations in 1876?
10. What effect had the victory of the United States on its relations with European countries?

EXERCISES

1. Prepare a list of great questions which the United States and Great Britain have peaceably settled. Tell how each was settled.
2. Compare England's treatment of the thirteen American colonies in 1765–1775 with that of the Canadian provinces in 1867.
3. Prepare a list of the countries in which a struggle for "union" occurred.
4. Review the change in government in England in 1832. See page 329.

Important Date:

1872. England and the United States settle the dispute over the *Alabama* Claims by arbitration.

CHAPTER XL

THE PRAIRIE STATES

The Pacific Railroads. — During the Civil War, when Congress was anxious to keep the Pacific coast loyal to the United States, it voted to aid several companies in the construction of railroads from the Mississippi Valley to the coast. Two companies began building, the Central Pacific from Sacramento eastward, and the Union Pacific from Omaha westward. The government gave these roads twenty sections of land, or 12,800 acres, for every mile of road, and besides lent them money. A race was started to see which could build the most before they met.[1]

The Union Pacific had the advantage at first. Its line west of Omaha followed the Oregon Trail through a country so flat that little grading was necessary. More than half of the workmen were veterans of the Civil War. The Central Pacific advanced more slowly across the Sierra Nevada range, but it made up in speed when it reached the great desert basin. Thousands of Chinese laborers were brought into the United States for this work. The two lines met in 1869 on the shores of Salt Lake near Ogden.

The Pacific railroad was a great undertaking. The iron for the western part had to be carried by steamboats from the East around Cape Horn or by way of Panama. For the

[1] The United States gave the railroad companies that built the first railroad system connecting the Missouri River with the Pacific coast 33,000,000 acres of land, an area much larger than the state of Pennsylvania. It gave to the companies which built the western railroads enough land to make five states like Pennsylvania, or a country larger than France or Germany.

eastern part wood and iron and other materials were taken up the Missouri River in steamboats or across western Iowa to Omaha by "prairie schooners." The eastern railroads had not yet reached Omaha. The great works of the past, like the National Road, the Erie Canal, and the Pennsylvania Portage Railway, seemed small beside this road. Except for the small Mormon town of Ogden, no settlements

THE PRINCIPAL RAILROADS WEST OF THE MISSISSIPPI IN 1884

had been made between Omaha and Sacramento, nearly 1800 miles. The little settlements at Denver, Salt Lake, and Carson were off the route chosen.

The earlier railroads had commonly been built to carry goods to the pioneers or to carry their products to the markets. The new roads crossed regions as yet uninhabited. Like the rivers of the Atlantic coast or of the Mississippi Valley they guided the work of settlement. The immigrants scattered on either side, adding village to village until the slender band reached across the continent. In this way the Pacific coast and the Mississippi Valley were bound together as never before.

Panic of 1873. — Other railroads were begun while the work on the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific was being completed. Indeed, as many miles of road were built in the four years ending in 1871 as existed in the whole country shortly before the Civil War. Men, in imagination, saw towns springing up everywhere. They borrowed recklessly to pay for rails, engines, and cars, or to buy town sites and lay them out. The consequence was a panic as bad as the panic of 1837. The country was only beginning to recover from it when the Centennial Exposition was held. For some time railroad building almost stopped. During these years the settlement of the West went on more slowly.

Sitting Bull

The Indian Question. — The Indians watched the advance of the settlers with angry feelings. Many of them remembered that ever since white men had landed on the Atlantic coast the Indian had been forced to give up one hunting ground after another. As in the colonial days, the settlers on the frontier were often attacked. The government sent soldiers to punish the hostile tribes, especially the Sioux and the Apaches. Several little wars took place. In a campaign against the Sioux in Montana, led by their chief, Sitting Bull, General George Custer, a young cavalry officer who had distinguished himself in the Civil War, and 264 of his troopers were suddenly surrounded and all of them killed. Only Custer's horse, Comanche, and a half-breed scout escaped. This was the last important Indian War. By 1877 most of the Indians were placed on reservations, either in the neigh-

borhood of their old hunting grounds or in the great Indian Territory south of Kansas.

New Settlements. — With the building of railroads a constantly increasing stream of settlers poured into the states and territories beyond the Mississippi. Part of them were from older states and part from Europe. In the year 1883 alone, more than 750,000 immigrants entered the United States, chiefly from Great Britain and Germany. There also came thousands of Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes. Many of these immigrants settled in Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, and the Dakotas. Unlike the settlers farther east, those who chose lands on the prairies found no forests to supply them with building material, and were obliged for a time to live in sod-houses or dug-outs. Corn or grass was often their only fuel.

The Ranches. — The earliest settlers on the plains depended chiefly on their herds of cattle. The frontiersman in America, whether on the eastern slopes of the first colonial mountain barrier or in the Mississippi Valley, raised many cattle. The vacant lands in the neighborhood gave him free pasture for his herds. This was especially true on the great plains. Nature had made it a nation's pasture land.

Many eastern men established vast ranches on the plains west of the farming settlements. These were mostly on the borderland, where the prairie ends and the mountains begin, a region too dry for ordinary farming. Cowboys in strange western dress, many of them Mexicans, tended great herds of long-horned cattle. Cowboys and steers took the place of the roving Indians and the wild buffaloes. The immense herds of buffaloes disappeared, slaughtered by wasteful, pleasure-seeking hunters. No fences were needed on the ranches. The cowboys lived with the herds, riding fleet bronchos and sleeping in the open air, much as did the Arabs of old.

It was a common thing for one ranch to possess five, ten, or twenty thousand head of cattle, which fed over a region equal to a half dozen western counties. A few cowboys were able to take entire care of them. Branding the calves with the mark of the ranch, so that they would be known, fighting cattle thieves, and driving the fattened stock to the distant railroads once a year, formed the chief occupations of the ranchmen. Grass, browned and cured on the ground, was the winter's food for the cattle. A deep valley, where little snow fell, formed the only shelter.

The cattle raised on the ranches at slight cost were carried or driven to Omaha and Kansas City. At first they were forwarded to St. Louis or Chicago. By 1862 Chicago had become the center of the meat packing business, as Cincinnati had been in the preceding period. Chicago has always kept the lead in the business, although Omaha and Kansas City have gradually gained a large share in it. From 1860 to 1880 the value of the business increased from $30,000,000 to $300,000,000. Meat was sent all over the country in refrigerator cars. After 1876 great quantities were prepared for sale in Europe. The refrigerator cars took the meat to an eastern port, where it was packed in refrigerating rooms on steamships.

From 1870 to 1890 farmers gradually took up the open lands. Within ten or twenty years the free prairies for grazing disappeared and the great ranches were crowded out. Many small herds of better breeds of short-horned cattle replaced the large herds. Farmers, rather than cowboys, kept them on the grazing grounds and guarded them. Great barns were built to shelter them in winter, and stores of fodder were prepared for the winter's food.

By 1890 the free fertile lands of the West were nearly all occupied. No longer could men leave shops or eastern farms when wages were low and take up free farms. The immi-

grant from Europe had little chance to become a landowner at almost no expense, as he had been doing since the founding of Jamestown.

The colonists had taken one hundred and fifty years to occupy the lands from the Atlantic Ocean to the first mountain barrier, a region about two hundred miles wide. But the later pioneers swept over the West, which was more than five times as wide, in twenty years. The difference was due

A Cattle Ranch in 1880

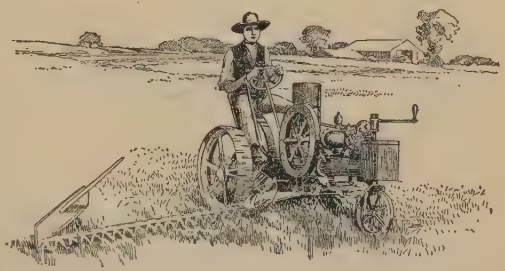
in part to the railroads which helped the modern pioneers to reach the western lands and to create cities almost over night. It seemed as though the West possessed Aladdin's magic lamp.

For a while the new towns and country districts were almost without government. Ruffians took refuge in the frontier towns, and in the ranches and the mining camps in the mountain districts farther west. They made a "Wild West" of the region. Showmen now like to travel over the country exhibiting the ways of such rough western towns. These days of lawlessness and danger, which have always been a

characteristic of the American frontier, lasted only a short time. Neat frame houses took the place of the sod-houses and the dug-outs, and thrifty stores came in where gambling dens had thriven. Orderly town, county, and state governments were modelled after those in the older states of the Mississippi Valley. Kansas, Nebraska, and Colorado had by entering the Union extended the states to the Rocky Mountains. California and Oregon had long stood as sentinels of the Union in the West. In 1889 and 1890 the frontier governments of North and South Dakota, of Montana, Wyoming, Idaho, and Washington became of age and took their place beside their sister states. They completed a solid double tier of states across the northern part of the United States. In 1896 Utah, first settled by the Mormons, became a state, and so filled in the space between Colorado and Nevada.

What the Pioneers did. — The earliest settlers on the prairie farms escaped some of the hardships of the other frontiersmen. They did not have the drudgery of felling huge forests or digging drains in swamps. They never suffered from malaria and ague as the pioneers did elsewhere. But they had other troubles instead. Some years the green crops dried up in the fields before harvest time for the want of enough rain. Many men gave up the hard struggle and returned to the eastern states. Those who stayed finally learned to plant crops that needed less rain and to cultivate the land in such a way as to make the best use of all the water in the soil. As they grew more skilful in dry farming they pushed to the very edge of the desert-like plains lying near the Rocky Mountains. Such pioneers taught others, and now failure occurs no oftener there than in other parts of the United States. The conquerors of America are the sturdy pioneers who have stayed on the frontiers until nature yielded to their will.

Wheat for the World. — Farming large tracts of land was easier on the plains than elsewhere. The prairies were level, unbroken, and extensive. Railroads were at hand to carry large crops to the cities, where the increasing population needed more food. For such reasons some men have established mammoth farms, especially wheat fields. Often these cover 10,000 or 20,000 acres. On them, powerful traction engines or an army of teams draw great machines — combined plows, seed-drills, and harrows — for planting, with reapers and threshers for harvesting. Great farms of this kind are the exception. Moderate sized farms of 160 or 320 acres are the rule. Everywhere the farmers use the newer farm machinery. They prepare the soil by riding plows and cultivators, put in the seed by the use of planters and drills, and harvest with self-binders. Steam threshing machines complete the work.



The New Way of Mowing Grass
With gasoline motor

Mills and Elevators. — The other work of the middle and farther West is done on an equally large scale. Monster grain elevators were built at railroad centers or lake ports like Kansas City, Omaha, Minneapolis, St. Paul, Chicago, and Buffalo. In Minneapolis, especially, great flour mills began to grind thousands of barrels of flour a day. The small mills, driven by water power, which formerly dotted wheat growing regions, gradually fell into ruins. The sale of wheat to Europeans increased rapidly. It was ten times as great in 1880 as in 1860.

QUESTIONS

1. In what ways did the United States help to build the first Pacific railroads? Why was building the Pacific railroads a difficult undertaking? What effect had the western railroads on settlement?

2. What caused the panic of 1873? What effect had the panic on the settlement of the West?

3. What attitude did the Indians take toward the settlement of the prairies? How did the United States treat the Indians?

4. Who settled the states west of the Mississippi? How did the pioneers on the prairies live?

5. Describe the cattle ranches of the frontier. Where were the cattle marketed? What change finally took place in the cattle country?

6. Why was the prairie region more rapidly settled than the Atlantic coast?

7. What new states were formed in the West?

8. What did the western farmers produce? How did the farmers do their work? What industry grew up in the wheat-growing region?

EXERCISES

1. Name and locate the chief Pacific railroads.

2. Compare the methods of farming in colonial days with those in the western states to-day. See pages 123–124.

3. How did the settlers reach the frontier in colonial days? How in the days of the settlement of the western prairies?

Important Dates:

1869. Completion of the first Pacific railroad.

1890. By this date the free lands useful for farming, without irrigation, are mostly gone, thus ending the era of colonization within the United States.

CHAPTER XLI

NEW METHODS OF WORKING

The New Factory System. — The early factories took from the household and the small shop such industries as spinning, weaving, and forging. As the use of machinery increased and new inventions were made, other household industries — the making of butter and cheese, the preserving or canning of fruits and vegetables, the curing, and even the cooking of meats — were moved, at least in part, to the factory.

Scene in a Knitting Mill

Factories also increased in size, as water power was used less and steam more. Many factories originally located near swift-running streams were abandoned. If the water power was abundant, they were enlarged, but steam was often used as well as water power.

The towns of New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, which first began weaving silk, cotton, and

woolen goods, or tanning leather, and making these products into clothing, shoes, and gloves, still continue in the same industries. Their factories are commonly run by steam or electricity. They must often send a distance for fuel as well as for materials like cotton, wool, and hides. In spite of these disadvantages they are able to continue in the same business because they have made a reputation for good workmanship and have a body of trained men and women in their factories.

Since the Civil War, factories have slowly migrated wherever fuel, materials, and skilled workers are found near together. For this reason cotton mills are rising in the South, woolen mills and shoe factories in the middle West. It is still true that the western people raise most of the food and produce most of the materials used in manufacturing, while the eastern people make most of the finished articles.

The Uses made of Electricity. — Marvelous things have been accomplished in the same period in the use of electricity. In 1866, after many efforts, a telegraph cable was laid through the Atlantic Ocean to Europe. Several years later an inventor improved Morse's telegraph so that two messages could be sent in opposite directions over the same wire at one time. Soon four messages could be sent at once.

Alexander Graham Bell, a teacher of the deaf, while studying the human ear, thought of a plan of "talking by telegraph." In 1876, after years of work, he exhibited a successful instrument at the Centennial in Philadelphia. This was the telephone. Men called him "a crank who says he can talk through a wire," but his invention was quickly adopted in America and Europe. By 1890 it was in common use.

The Dynamo. — Inventors in Germany, England, France, Italy, and the United States, working at the same time, found out how to make electricity on a large scale and cheaply. The

machine which they invented for this purpose was called a dynamo. Though first made about 1866, it did not come into ordinary use in the United States until after 1880. The dynamo is commonly driven by a steam or gasoline engine or by a water wheel. The electricity which it makes can be carried a long distance by means of wires. Other inventors discovered many uses for the electricity which the dynamo produces. Some learned how to use the current to run machinery. This is done by means of a motor.

In 1878 Charles F. Brush invented the arc light for streets and parks, while Thomas A. Edison, in the following year, made an electric light for houses. In the meantime, a German in Berlin, Dr. Siemens, had constructed a street railway car run by an electric motor. All these inventions worked great changes in the cities. Street cars, which had at first been drawn by horses, were soon moved by electricity. A line in Baltimore and another in Richmond in 1885 were the first in the United States to make the change. By 1895 few horse cars were left in the United States. This change within the cities from 1885 to 1895 was followed by the building of electric railways from town to town. Such lines, bringing the town and country within easy reach of each other, made country life pleasanter and helped the towns and cities to obtain food from the neighboring farms and to carry on trade with one another. Several of the older railroads have begun to use electric instead of steam locomotives.

The most wonderful use for electricity was yet to come. Scientific men had long known that electricity travels through space without the necessity of following a wire, like waves on the surface of the water. In 1896 Marconi, an Italian electrician, invented an instrument for telegraphing through space without wires. The method was rapidly improved until messages could be sent across the Atlantic Ocean and from ship to ship in mid-ocean. The wireless telegraph,

invented in Europe, was almost immediately adopted in the United States.

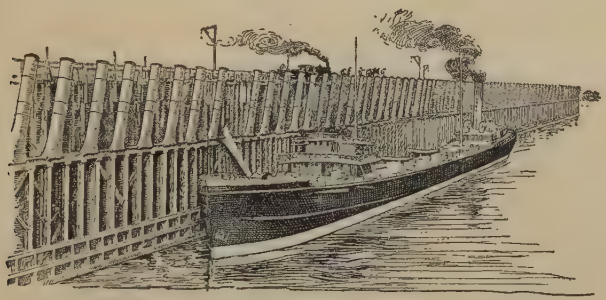
Within a few years after the invention of the dynamo, the motor, and the electric light, many private companies went into the business of making electric current and selling it for lighting and for running machinery. Some electric plants use coal for fuel, but others depend on water power. In 1902 great machines were built to use a part of the water of Niagara River above the Falls. The electric current is carried on wires to Buffalo, 22 miles away, and even to cities much farther off. In these it is used to light streets and buildings, run factories, and move street cars. Rivers are made to do work which would require thousands of horses. The nineteenth century was the age of steam, but the twentieth century is becoming the age of electricity.

A Modern "Sky-Scraper"

Woolworth Building, New York; the tallest building in the world. This has a steel frame

Steel. — The need of a material stronger and more durable than iron led to the invention of steel. In 1856 Henry Bessemer, an Englishman, discovered a cheap method — since called the Bessemer method — of converting ordinary iron into steel. Bessemer's method, as well as other new methods, was introduced into the United States. By 1890 the Americans equaled, if they did not surpass, other nations in making iron and steel. Steel was soon used for finer grades of tools

and delicate surgical instruments. Steamships were built of it, and were made larger as the builders learned to use the new materials. The modern steamship, framed with steel beams and covered with sheets of steel, is capable of carrying two or three thousand passengers and many car-loads of freight across the Atlantic in five or six days. The huge buildings called "sky-scrapers" are steel-framed. The parts of such structures are made in a mill, ready to be put together. Since the introduction of steel the railroads have



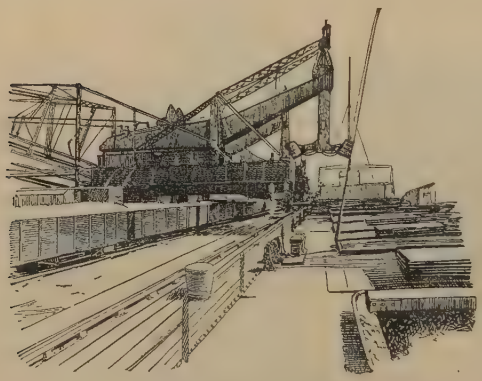
Loading Iron Ore on a Boat on Lake Superior

been entirely rebuilt at great cost. The rails of the track, many of the bridges, even many of the cars, are made of steel.

How Iron is obtained. — Great improvements have also taken place in mining ore, in carrying it to the mills, and in manufacturing iron. Formerly most of the iron ore came from Pennsylvania, but now three-fourths come from the mountain ranges about Lake Superior. Much is also mined in Alabama. In Michigan and Minnesota powerful steam shovels load the soft iron ore upon railway cars. Railroads take it to lake ports and dump it into great bins, high above the water-level. Chutes lead the ore into the holds of steel steamboats five or six hundred feet long, and capable of carrying five or six thousand tons at once. These great carriers

take the ore to ports chiefly on the south shore of lakes Erie and Michigan, near where it is wanted. Huge unloading machines operated by steam or electricity lift the ore from the boats to railroad cars in which it goes to the iron mills. At every step it is handled by machinery, and the human hand need not touch it or do more than direct the machines which perform the work.

In order to separate the iron in the ore from other materials, iron ore, coke, and limestone are poured by iron buckets into a blast furnace, and a running stream of liquid iron comes out and is cast into what is called pig iron. The pig iron is then made into cast iron, wrought iron, or into some kind of steel. Machines pull the steel into rods and wire, or roll it into bars and sheets. These in turn are made into tools, machinery, and building material.

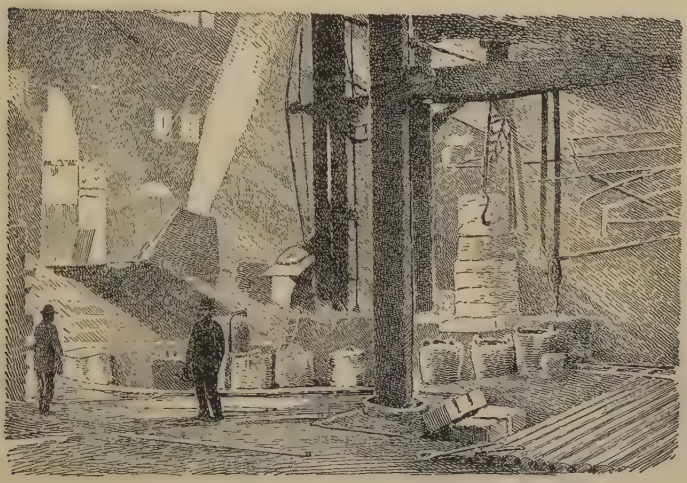


Unloading Iron Ore

In 1876 iron was chiefly manufactured in the neighborhood of Pittsburgh. After the ore was obtained principally from the Northwest, other cities became rivals of Pittsburgh. Steel mills must be located where they can bring their coal and iron ore together cheaply and at places from which the finished articles can be forwarded to the best markets. For this reason many steel mills have been built along the south shore of Lake Erie and Lake Michigan, with Cleveland and Chicago as the centers.

New Uses for Iron and Steel. — Inventions have never

been made so fast as since the Civil War. Man has seemed determined to find machines for all his work. Some were borrowed from Europeans, others were invented by Americans, some are merely improvements of older inventions, others introduce entirely new methods of work. Many old tools like the blacksmith's hammer and the wood-worker's chisel and the laborer's shovel were enlarged and driven by



A Bessemer Converter of Iron into Steel

steam or electricity. These great hammers, lathes, and steam shovels are able to do the work of scores of men working in the old manner. Saws and planes and chisels which cut stone and iron as easily as wood have come into use. Machines have been built for cutting coal in mines, digging ditches, and laying railroad tracks.

Other machines make wire, tacks, bolts, screws, nails, and pins. One of them takes thin wire, cuts it into short lengths, puts a head on the pieces, sharpens these at the other end, and sticks them into papers—a paper of pins ready for the market.

The machinery for making paper and for printing newspapers and books is still more remarkable. Paper was formerly made entirely from cotton and linen rags. The demand for a cheaper paper led to the discovery of a new method of manufacturing it. Soft poplar, pine, or spruce logs are ground into a pulp, dried, and rolled into sheets. The modern printing-press prints, folds, and even counts the finished newspapers at the rate of 20,000 an hour. With another ingenious machine, called the linotype, or "line-o'-type," a printer can set a line of type almost as easily as one can write the words with a typewriter.

A list of the new machines would be very long. None are more remarkable than the cash registers and calculating machines which add, subtract, multiply, and divide, or the phonographs, stereopticons, and moving-picture machines.

Gas and Petroleum. — Gas made from coal had long been used in American towns for lighting houses and streets. Natural gas obtained, like petroleum, from deep wells came into common use about 1872. Pipe lines were built, through which the gas could be carried to the large cities, sometimes 150 or 200 miles away. Gas from Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, and Indiana helped the cities to build up manufactures, for it was a cheap fuel. The more recent discovery of natural gas in southeastern Kansas and eastern Oklahoma has started a new manufacturing center.

The uses of petroleum have been multiplied. Raw petroleum is used for fuel in many steamships, and also in locomotives, especially in California. The kerosene lamp was invented during the Civil War, and the gasoline stove soon afterwards. The principal use of gasoline is in a new form of engine. About the time of the Philadelphia Centennial German inventors constructed a successful gas-engine. The explosion of a mixture of gas and air drove a piston which in turn moved the wheels. Scores of inventors had been work-

ing on the idea for more than a century. The new engine proved popular. It had several advantages over the steam-engine; it was, first of all, simpler to run and lighter in weight. The gas could be made from alcohol as well as gasoline. In Germany alcohol is chiefly used for this purpose.

The Automobile, 1886. — About ten years after the invention of the gas-engine and while engine-builders were perfecting it, other inventors found new uses for the machine. Germans first used the gas-engine to run carriages and wagons, thus producing the automobile. The manufacturers of every country quickly adopted the German plan, and improved upon the first clumsy cars. Workmen and inventors of every country rivaled one another in efforts to produce the best. The gas-engine is also rapidly being used to drive farm machinery. Goods which men once carried to market on their backs, and which later oxen or horses hauled, steam, gas, or electric cars now take more swiftly and more cheaply.

An Aeroplane

The Aeroplane. — For centuries scientists dreamed of an invention by which man could travel through the air like a bird in flight. Balloons were made in the eighteenth century, but they, like the sailing vessel, were at the mercy of every wind. European inventors were quick to apply the light gas-engine to the balloon, changing its shape so that it would be more manageable. The lightness of the gas-engine made possible what seems the most marvelous invention of all. In 1905 the Wright Brothers, after patient trials, made a successful aeroplane or flying-machine.

Expositions. — Several times since the Centennial Exposition other expositions have been held, which gave the people opportunities to see what rapid progress was being made, not only by Americans but also by all nations. The World's Fair or Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893 was intended partly to celebrate the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America. Eleven years later an exposition at St. Louis commemorated the 100th anniversary of the purchase of Louisiana, and the following year one at Portland,

Court of Honor, Columbian Exposition

Oregon, commemorated the expedition of Lewis and Clark to the mouth of the Columbia River.

"Big Business" or Trusts. — The methods of managing business and manufacturing have changed almost as much as the methods of work. The men engaged in the railroad business were the first to begin the change. It did not seem necessary that passengers or freight, going from New York to Boston, or from New York to Buffalo, or from Philadelphia to Chicago, should be carried over half a dozen short railroad lines, one ending where another began. Successful managers, like "Commodore" Vanderbilt, sought to unite the roads running in the same direction or through the same district. This had been begun before the Civil War, but it was pushed forward more rapidly afterward, until the railroads of the

country were united into several enormous systems, which spread over the United States like huge nets.

Other business men followed the example of the railroad managers. They reached out from the city where they worked and purchased similar factories in other cities. Often they did not buy these rival factories, but formed with their owners various kinds of agreements which have been commonly called "trusts." The competition or rivalry of many men or groups of men trying to sell the same thing formerly kept prices down. When the great railroad systems controlled the freight business of a region, or when the "trusts" made all or nearly all of one kind of goods, they were free to fix prices as they pleased. The formers of the trusts claimed that their purpose was to introduce more economical methods of conducting business. They made such enormous fortunes, however, by the new method that the benefits seemed to the people to be all on the side of the railroads and trusts. The people differ greatly as to how the government should meet this new question. The formation of trusts has been especially successful in such trades as iron, steel, tobacco, petroleum, meat, sugar, cotton, and leather.

Cities known for Special Things. — As a result of the growth of manufacturing, certain cities became noted for producing a particular article. For example, Troy, New York, became known for collars and cuffs; Baltimore for canning oysters; Gloverville, New York, for gloves; Philadelphia for carpets; Bridgeport and Waterbury, Connecticut, for brassware. In some towns nearly all the workmen are engaged in a single occupation. In South Omaha they are occupied with meat packing; in McKeesport, Pennsylvania, with iron and steel; in East Liverpool, Ohio, with pottery; in Fall River, Massachusetts, with cotton goods; and in Brockton, Massachusetts, with boots and shoes. Some places profited more than others by the new methods of

manufacture. The South is being entirely changed through their introduction.

QUESTIONS

1. What household industries have recently been moved to the factory? What changes have occurred in the old factories? Why can an eastern factory located a long way from the materials which it needs remain prosperous? What changes in the location of factories are noticeable since the Civil War?

2. What new use has been found for the telegraph? What improvement has been made in it?

3. Who invented the telephone? What did people think of it at first?

4. How is electricity now made? When did the dynamo come into use in the United States? What uses have recently been found for the electric current produced by the dynamo? What is the motor? When was the first electric railway system introduced into the United States?

5. Who invented the wireless telegraph?

6. Describe one new way of making steel. Mention new uses for steel.

7. Describe the process of obtaining iron ore, shipping it, handling it, and making it into various kinds of iron. Where is the iron obtained? Where is it manufactured into iron, steel, tools, and machinery?

8. What tools and machines have recently been invented? How is each used? How is cheaper paper now made? How is type now set?

9. When did natural gas come into use? How did its discovery affect the work of the regions where it was found?

10. What uses have been found for petroleum? What is the principal use for gasoline? Describe the gas-engine. Where is it employed?

11. What change has taken place in the management of railroads and factories? What is a "trust"? Name some of the more successful ones.

12. What cities are famous for some special kind of manufacturing?

EXERCISES

1. Write a paper on the changes which have taken place in the work of the household. See pages 125–129, 250–254, 299–300.

2. Visit some local factory, telephone system, electric light or power plant, or street railway system, and write a paper about its history.

3. Draw a map of the township showing the telephone lines, electric light and power lines, interurban car lines, and give the dates of construction of each.

4. What changes have taken place in the method of heating American houses? See pages 122–123, 369.

Important Date:

Learn the date of the invention mentioned in this chapter which the majority of the class believe to be the most important.

CHAPTER XLII

THE NEW SOUTH

The Southern Farmer. — As the plantation system broke down, the planters generally moved into the cities. Some had the courage to start anew in another business. Their sons became the business men, the lawyers, and the physicians of the community. The plantations were divided into small farms, and either sold or rented to the freedmen or to farmers who before the war had been too poor to own slaves. These white men with small farms found cotton growing profitable for the first time. They were no longer obliged to compete with the owners of large plantations using gangs of slaves. As they prospered they rented or purchased more land. They also bought the newly invented machines, cotton-seed planters and stalk cutters. They now raise about half the cotton, the other half being raised by negroes. The southern cotton crop is three-fourths of all the cotton raised in the world.

HARVESTING ALFALFA IN VIRGINIA

Renewing the Land. — For a long time the southern farmer had trouble with the soil. Much of the land was worn

out because crop after crop had been raised from it without any attempt to preserve its richness by the use of fertilizers. Fortunately, great beds of phosphate rocks were discovered in South Carolina, Florida, and Tennessee. These rocks were ground up and made into a valuable fertilizer, which was scattered over the fields. The farmers also learned how to rotate their crops, so that the soil was rapidly improved.

Harvesting Rice in Louisiana

The consequence has been that land once regarded as worthless has again come into use. Farmers who had gone to the West to obtain fresh land began to return to the old homesteads. The cotton growers were not the only ones who profited by the new way of enriching the soil. All kinds of farming were improved by it. Innumerable truck gardens and fruit farms were started. The Atlantic coast from Maryland to Florida has almost no winter. Five or six crops of vegetables may be grown on the same soil during a single season. The South has, therefore, become the garden where the early fruits and vegetables of the whole country east of the Rocky Mountains are raised.

Rice Farming in the Southwest. — Rice was formerly grown only on lowlands which were flooded by the overflow of the rivers at certain times in the year. Recently the farmers of the Southwest, in Louisiana and Texas, have learned to drain the lowlands, and then to irrigate the fields

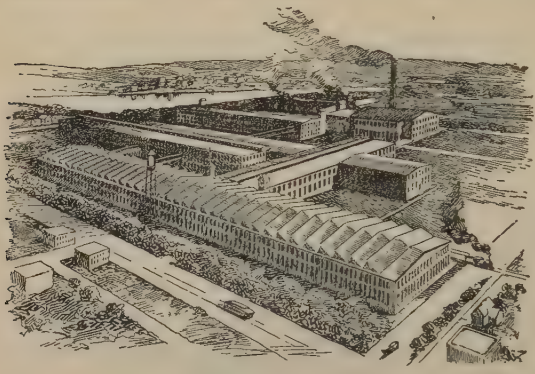
by pumping water over them, in order to grow rice. By such means they have become independent of floods and do not fear droughts. They use drills and harvesters and steam threshers similar to those on the wheat farms of the Northwest.

Utilizing the Treasures Underground. — In this period southerners learned that the oil, gas, coal, and iron fields of the Appalachian Mountains, first discovered in Pennsylvania and West Virginia, extended into the South as far as the mountains ran. A little later they found that the coal, oil, and gas fields of Missouri and Kansas also extended through Oklahoma into Texas.

The people of northern Alabama had long known that there was plenty of red iron ore in the neighborhood. On the old plantations they had used it as a dye-stuff. "Dye-dirt" they called it. The Indians had used it before them. After the Civil War a geologist explored the region and reported that there was a mountain of this ore twenty-five miles long. A railroad was built to the place. In the same region a coal field larger in area than the entire state of Massachusetts was discovered. An abundance of limestone, used in making iron, was also found near by. Nature had thus marked northern Alabama as a center for iron manufacture. In 1871 a town was founded in the heart of the new region and named Birmingham, after the great English manufacturing city. The Alabama village has now become a great city with all kinds of manufactures. Other cities like Chattanooga and Knoxville, in eastern Tennessee, have also become iron manufacturing centers.

Cotton Mills. — Midway between the regions where cotton is grown and coal is mined, mills for the manufacture of cotton cloth have recently been built. It was cheaper to haul the coal down the mountains than to carry the cotton all the way to the coal. Therefore at such points as Char-

lotte, Columbia, and Atlanta cotton mills have been built. In 1876 the South manufactured scarcely any cotton goods, or anything else. Now it produces about one-half of the cotton manufactures of the United States. South Carolina, once a poor state, with no other wealth than its plantations or farms, now has not only better farms but ranks second among the states in the products of its cotton mills.



A Southern Cotton Mill

Other Manufactures. — One thing led to another. Enterprising men established mills to make oil and meal out of the seed of the cotton, which had formerly been wasted. The cultivation of peanuts and their preparation for the market has become an important industry in Virginia and North Carolina. Cotton-seed oil and peanut oil have many uses similar to the olive oil of Europe and California. It is one of the marvels of nature that the seed of the cotton shrub and of the peanut vine produce an oil like that of the fruit of the olive tree.

The Appalachian Mountains are covered with valuable forests. Some of the largest logging camps and most modern saw-mills in the world have been recently established to make use of them. Factories for making furniture have also been built in the timber region. In 1892 High Point in North Carolina was a village unknown beyond the bounds of its own county. It is now, next to Grand Rapids in Michigan, the greatest center of furniture making in the United States;

and other southern cities are close to it. These factories, mills, and shops at the South are using the same machines that are used in the North. Great steam shovels scoop up the iron ore from the surface around Birmingham. Electric and pneumatic machines cut the coal loose in the coal mines.

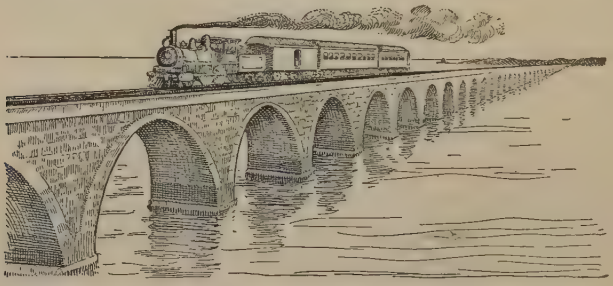
Water Power. — The southern towns have begun to utilize water power to make electricity for lighting and for running machinery. No other part of the United States is better situated for such purposes. The swift-flowing rivers, falling from the mountains to the plains, to the east, the south, and the west of the Appalachian system, offer many sites suited to manufacturing. And the materials needed — lumber, iron, and cotton — are close by. There is enough water power within 60 miles of Charlotte, North Carolina, to do the work which would require the labor of millions of men working day and night.

Some Great Works at the South. — The southern people have carried out some enterprises as great as any in modern times. Galveston was originally built on low ground and was often flooded by high water when storms raged on the Gulf of Mexico. In 1902 the city began a great sea-wall. It has not only finished this, but has raised the level of the entire city from eight to seventeen feet, putting an end to the danger from floods. New Orleans has drained and diked and filled in, until it, too, is safe. Sewerage and drainage have banished malaria, yellow fever, and cholera, which were the scourges of the old South. Florida, since 1906, has been draining the Everglades. When this work is finished an area three times as large as Connecticut will be opened to settlement for small fruit and truck farms. One writer has estimated that if the swamps along the Atlantic coast from New Jersey to Florida were drained, like similar lowlands in Holland, 10,000,000 people might find homes on them. It is in

such places that the United States must find part of its future land for settlement.

The Key West Railroad. — Since the Civil War the South has also been building many new railroads. The Florida East Coast railroad has recently finished a line from Miami to Key West. To do this, it was necessary to bridge the sea from islet to islet with great stone arches. The new railroad, 155 miles long, carries trains to within 90 miles of Havana.

How this Change affects the People. — The change in the work of the South since 1876 is much like that in the North



THE FIRST TRAIN OVER THE KEY WEST RAILROAD

after the War of 1812. The negroes and the poorer white farmers no longer make their sugar, candles, and soap, and spin and weave and dye their own clothing, as they often did for some years after the Civil War. The negroes are not now the skilled laborers — the carpenters, the masons, and the blacksmiths of the South, as in the days of the great slave plantations. The white men from the hill country of the Appalachians are taking over these trades. They are also going into the factories and shops. The old class of poor white people is fast disappearing. Varied work and freedom from competition with slaves have given them the opportunity they needed. Their little cabins are giving way to three-room or four-room houses. Their sons no longer move westward as they did in Lincoln's boyhood, but they find the "promised

land" about them in the mines, the forest, the factories, and the new farms. "Captains of big mills" now take the place of the former slave-holders.

Free Schools. — The New South has meant more than making better use of land, forests, mines, and water power. After the Civil War the southern people began earnestly to build up a free public school system. The states had few schools and those mostly private. The population of the South was scattered widely, which made the task of providing for education difficult. The southerners also wished to educate white children and negro children in separate schools. The cost of the schools was, moreover, a heavy burden, because the South was impoverished by the war. Northern men have helped with generous gifts of money. The southern states now pay more in taxes for schools in proportion to their wealth than the West, though not so much as the eastern states. They have elementary and high schools, colleges, universities, agricultural and industrial schools.

Special industrial schools are provided which train the negroes to be farmers, workmen, and the teachers of their own race. The most famous are at Hampton, Virginia, and Tuskegee, Alabama. Booker T. Washington, one of the leaders of the southern negroes, the head of Tuskegee Institute, says that in 1865 barely three out of one hundred grown negroes could read and write, but that seventy can now do so.

The New South. — The old southern cities have removed the scars of the great war. In 1865 Richmond had lost 700 houses, but it rose rapidly from its ruins. In 1907 the South held a great fair on the shore of Hampton Roads, near Norfolk, to celebrate the three hundredth anniversary of the settlement at Jamestown. Every southern state had its own building. In the buildings devoted to industry and agriculture the exhibits showed the progress of the South since the fair at Philadelphia in 1876.

QUESTIONS

1. What became of the planter class? Who profited from the breaking down of the plantation system?

2. How was much southern land brought back into cultivation? What changes have taken place in southern farming?

3. What underground treasures have recently been found in the South? For what is Birmingham noted?

4. Why were the cotton mills built at such places as Charlotte, Columbia, and Atlanta? What other manufactures have been established?

5. Why is the South fortunately situated for manufactures?

6. What great works have recently been completed? Are there still any opportunities for settlers at the South?

7. Who are the skilled workers of the South? What changes in work are taking place? What is the South doing for the education of its workers?

EXERCISES

1. Those who live in the states where slavery and the plantation system existed before the Civil War should find stories to illustrate the changes which have taken place in the South. For example, the story of some old plantation or the history of some factory or mill.

2. Those who live in the North, east of the Rocky Mountains, should find out which food products in the local market are grown in the South. Which of the manufactures are made in the South?

CHAPTER XLIII

THE LAST BARRIERS

The Indians become Citizens. — Ever since Jamestown was founded the Indian had been crowded back from one hunting ground to another. His last hunting grounds were called "reservations," and for many years the government kept the white settlers out. Finally, the friends of the Indian concluded that it was better for him to give up his tribal customs,

Waiting on the Frontier of Oklahoma

receive his share of the tribal reservation, and become a citizen. After the last Indian wars were over, Congress passed a bill giving to each Indian family 160 acres, and permitting the sale of the remainder of the land of the reservations, on the understanding that the money should go to the Indians. The first great reservation to be broken up was Indian Territory, a part of which was bought by the government and opened to ordinary settlers.

Oklahoma. — The part of Indian Territory thrown open was called Oklahoma, or the "Beautiful Land." Thousands of persons were eager to occupy the best sites for towns or

the best farming lands. The scene on the border, as the time approached when the territory should be declared open, was very different from what happened during the earlier settlement of the West. Troops were obliged to keep the land seekers back so that none should gain an unfair advantage. At a signal exactly at mid-day, the waiting crowd began a mad race for the best lands. On foot or on horseback or in wagons, old men and young men, and many women, rushed in to stake out homesteads or town lots. Guthrie was an open field at

A Town in Oklahoma Two Days after Settlement Began

noon time. At night 10,000 people were encamped there, and the inhabitants had already begun to form a town government. Wherever an Indian reservation was broken up, the same wild scramble for land occurred. Oklahoma grew with wonderful rapidity. In 1907 it was united with Indian Territory and admitted to the Union. Meanwhile the population, which in 1889 was barely 200,000, mostly Indians, increased to more than one and a half million. Oklahoma is now larger in population than several of the original thirteen states. It is little more than twenty years old; they are nearly three hundred years old. Its white population has been drawn chiefly from its neighbors, Kansas, Missouri, and Texas.

Arizona and New Mexico have grown more slowly. They became states in 1912. They filled the last gap in a solid tier of states extending along the southern boundary from Texas to California. The union of thirteen states in 1789 has become a union of forty-eight.

The Call of the Canadian Northwest. — As the fertile lands of the West were filled, land seekers turned to the Canadian Northwest. Farmers and clerks and laborers moved to this, the newest frontier. Canada, like the United States, founded the new provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta on the great western prairies, and thus bridged over the gap between Ontario and British Columbia. In 1886 the Canadian Pacific Railroad was completed to the Pacific Ocean. Two other great railroad systems tapped various places in the Canadian West — the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk. The Canadians have recently taken a place beside the people of the United States in producing wheat, gold, and silver for other parts of the world. Immigrants from England, Scotland, Norway, Sweden, Russia, as well as from the United States, are rapidly making use of its vast prairies, forests, and mines. The climate no longer seems to check the tide of migration toward the Arctic Ocean and Hudson Bay.

Alaska. — In 1896 gold was discovered 2000 miles up the Yukon River, near the Alaskan boundary. The greater discoveries were on the Canadian side, but discoveries at several places in Alaska caused a rush to the gold fields like that to California in 1849. In a short time the population of Alaska was more than doubled. Within five years Americans took out of Alaska $132,500,000 in gold, nearly twenty times the original cost of the territory. Nor is gold the only thing of value there. It has been estimated that there are forests fit for marketing with an area larger than either the state of Maine or South Carolina; two or three hundred square miles of coal-beds, varying from two feet to twenty feet in thickness; farm and grazing lands equal in extent to the combined area of Illinois and Indiana. Even if much of the pioneer work within the United States proper is completed, there is still work for Americans in the great territory in the farthest Northwest.

The people of the Pacific coast have long profited by the

Alaskan trade. Cities like Tacoma and Seattle have grown rich and strong from it. Tacoma was a village of 1100 in 1880, in 1910 it was a city of over 83,000. Seattle had 3500 inhabitants in 1880 and 237,000 in 1910.

Building the Nation on the Pacific Side. — In the days of the Spaniards cattle formed the chief wealth of California.

Picking Oranges in California

After the inhabitants recovered from the excitement over the discovery of gold in 1848, wheat took the place of cattle. Grass, gold, and grain were the chief means of gaining wealth in each of three periods. In 1876 California and Oregon were noted for their great fields of wheat. Farm machinery and the railroads made this possible. About 1885 a new industry was begun along the Pacific coast. California, Oregon, and Washington became famous for their fruit farms, and today well-tilled orchards and vineyards cover the land. For a while wheat proved a more profitable crop than gold, but fruit is now more profitable than either. The Sacramento Valley in California and the "Spokane Prairie" region in Washington are still given chiefly to wheat growing. Here combined harvesters and threshers enter the fields of standing wheat and when they leave

the grain is piled in sacks. In the Pacific Northwest — Oregon and Washington — a few great steam-driven saw-mills with improved machinery do the work that was formerly done by a multitude of small saw-mills built by the sides of streams. The Pacific states have other resources. Multitudes are drawn to them by the mild, sunny climate and beautiful scenery.

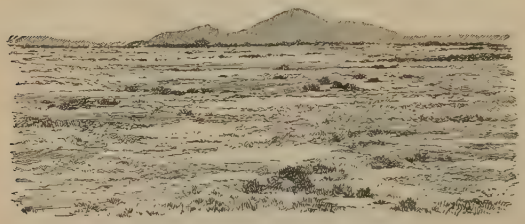
The earliest settlers occupied lands on the coast, and in the adjacent valleys. The late comers settled farther east, and the frontier line moved steadily eastward toward the Cascade Mountains and the desert barriers. Some grazing land and irrigated patches exist along the eastern border of each of the Pacific states, but most of the region still includes vast stretches of undeveloped land.

Mining Camps in the West. — Long after the great discoveries of gold and silver in California, Colorado, and Nevada, these, as well as many other metals, were found elsewhere in the mountain region. Prospectors, pioneers with another name, searched everywhere for minerals. The settlement of Idaho, Montana, and Wyoming began in the mining camps.

Such camps were wretched villages — a general store, a saloon, and a row of rude one-story huts on a winding street in a mountain valley, usually remote from a railroad and the outside world. They were lonely and desolate when the gold seekers were away, but all excitement if they returned successful. It was a hard life and few men succeeded. Young men made up most of the inhabitants, and they usually left when the first wild gold-fever passed. The fortunate few remained to work in the mines. Some who went to mine stayed to trade and farm. Numberless mining camps became thriving villages and cities. Railroads were built to them. The printing-press, the church, the school, and the library came in time. Then real pioneers took the place of the rough, boisterous prospectors.

Conquering the Last Barrier. — Great progress has been

made in overcoming another barrier to settlement in the mountain plateau of the West. Millions of acres of land in Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, and other states are fit only for grazing unless water is carried to them. In some places farmers dug artesian wells or tapped a mountain stream to obtain water for the fields. States also built canals to convey water. Such work is called irrigation. The Mormons of Utah were the pioneers of the United States in turning a part of the water in the mountain streams toward the farm lands. Since 1902 the United States has been helping the mountain states. Great lakes have been made by damming up rivers. Canals distribute the water thus stored when wanted in the valleys below. The money obtained for the public lands and the water privileges is again put into new irrigation works. The land in small lots is almost given to the settler. The water is sold to him at cost. Great reservoirs between the mountains are being rapidly formed. The dams are built as solid as the brick and stone work of the Romans.



Arid Land before Irrigation

The Same Land after Irrigation

The mammoth Roosevelt dam, on Salt River in Arizona, supplies water for thousands of farms. Another on the Rio

Grande forms a lake forty miles long and from one to ten miles wide. New Mexico alone, which Coronado declared worthless, will soon have an area of irrigated lands equal to the entire states of Delaware and Rhode Island.

An irrigated farm is different from others. The owner controls the supply of water and hastens or delays the planting or ripening of his crop at will. The soil is deep and rich. The endless sunshine and mild climate make every season a harvest season of some kind. The high dams supply water power, making electricity for the towns, the mines, and the farms. All the comforts of the city are found. Men are learning to accomplish the marvel of making the American deserts bring forth bountiful harvests. Writers of geography no longer write the words "the Great American Desert" across the far West. The government of the United States already looks forward to the time when 20,000,000 people will live on these farms created in the desert.

THE ROOSEVELT DAM

To make sure of a plentiful supply of water it is necessary to care for the forests which clothe the slopes of the mountains. If they are cut down, the streams will be dry most of the year, while at other times they will rush down, swollen far beyond their banks, and sweep everything before them. For

this reason the national government began in 1891 to set apart millions of acres of public forest land, placing the trees under the care of foresters, men who have studied how to protect trees. The foresters also plant new trees where these are needed.

QUESTIONS

1. How had the United States dealt with the Indians in the past? What plan was finally adopted? What was done with the land composing the Indian reservations?

2. Why was Oklahoma settled so rapidly? Who formed the main body of settlers in Oklahoma? What two states were formed in 1912? How many states now compose the Union?

3. What progress did the westward movement in Canada make in this period? Who were the settlers?

4. What valuable resources have been discovered in Alaska? What cities have profited from the Alaskan trade?

5. What changes have taken place in California since the days of the Spaniards? What are the main occupations of the people on the Pacific coast?

6. Who were the pioneers in the western mountains? Describe a mining camp.

7. How is the last western barrier to settlement being overcome? Describe an irrigation system.

8. What is the work of the national foresters?

EXERCISES

1. Compare the ideas of Alaska in 1867 with those held at the present day. See page 448.

2. Review the Spanish settlement of California. See pages 226–227.

3. Why was the settlement of the Pacific coast states really an eastward instead of a westward movement?

4. What two barriers to settlement, finally removed, are discussed in this chapter?

Important Date:

1902. The United States begins building irrigation works in the Far West, and thus opens a new frontier to settlement.

CHAPTER XLIV

LABORERS OF A GREAT NATION

Growth of Cities. — The change in the methods of work has led, even more than before, during the last twenty or thirty years to the rapid growth of cities. The development of great railroad systems has had a similar effect. The centers from which they branch out in many directions serve as markets from which products of all sorts are forwarded to the smaller towns and villages of whole regions. Some of the cities are also ports on lake or sea, from which goods are carried by steamship to other ports of the United States or to Europe, South America, Asia, or Africa.

For many years after the Republic was founded, the great majority of the people lived in the country on farms. This is still true in the South and some parts of the West, but in the older states the majority now live in the cities. One-tenth of the entire population of the United States dwell in the cities of New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia. Nearly one-fourth live in cities with a population of 100,000 or more.

The Newest Immigrants. — Immigrants now usually settle in the cities, while formerly they settled on farm lands near the frontier. The great demand for laborers in the cities has attracted them. Indeed, the rapid growth of manufacturing in recent years would have been impossible without the help of newcomers from Europe. Many immigrants also go to the principal mining regions.

The number of immigrants has increased very rapidly since the Civil War, but especially since 1880. It has been

more than half a million a year, and some years more than a million. The total population in the United States in 1790 was a little less than four million people. Now as many people enter the United States every four years. More come in a single year than came in the entire period from the founding of Jamestown to the outbreak of the Revolution. Enough immigrants arrived in 1907 to people a state as large as Connecticut or Nebraska.

VILLAGE OF THE REGION FROM WHICH THE LATER IMMIGRANTS ARE COMING

Immigrants from Eastern Europe. — Before 1880 four-fifths of the immigrants came from the British Isles and northwestern Europe. Since that time the immigrants from these regions have decreased, while others from southern and eastern Europe have greatly increased. In 1882 the entrance of Chinese laborers was forbidden; in 1907, by a treaty with Japan, this rule was extended to Japanese laborers. Few of either of these races have been able to enter the United States. It is the Italians, Albanians, Greeks, Bulgarians, Servians, Magyars, Poles, Bohemians, and Lithuanians who have been coming lately in the largest numbers. Their homes are on the coasts of the Mediterranean and in the valleys of the Danube and the Volga. They are mostly rugged peasants, and they take up the hardest work in the United States. To them America is as much the Land of Promise as it had been at an earlier period to the Puritan, the Scotch, the Irish, and the Germans.

Many of the recent immigrants come from regions where the ancient Greeks and Romans once lived and where ruins of their great and beautiful buildings still remain. They love painting, sculpture, and music. The Slavs, also, are lovers of music. Some of the immigrants have become leaders in orchestras and musical societies. Like the Germans before them, they have helped in spreading the love of music and other arts in the United States.

WHERE THE IMMIGRANTS GO TO LIVE IN THE UNITED STATES

The greater number of the foreign-born live in congested quarters in the large cities

The Crowded Tenements. — Both the immigrants and the native Americans who have moved to the factory districts of the cities have been obliged to change their former mode of life. It is necessary for them to settle near the places where they work, often in crowded, smoky, dismal spots. Cheap tenement houses have been built for them. The laborer's place of work is commonly more grimy and cheerless still. In the mines and mills his work was done often amid great dangers from explosions of gases or from unguarded machinery.

Organization of the Laborers. — As the business of manufacturing or managing railroads was gradually organized in great corporations or "trusts," so laborers of all sorts were

organized. Small trade societies or unions had been common for many years. When prices rose during the Civil War, the laborers united in order to attempt to raise wages. Besides, the growth of manufactures, bringing together in the same industry, often in the same town, large bodies of laborers, made the formation of unions easier. The printers, the locomotive engineers, the cigar makers, the bricklayers, and the carpenters were among the first to form large organizations of all workers in the United States. Others rapidly followed their example.

On Thanksgiving day, 1869, a group of garment cutters in Philadelphia started a plan to unite all laborers into one body without regard to their particular kind of work. A powerful organization, called the Knights of Labor, grew from these small beginnings. A few years later, in 1881, another combination was formed, called the American Federation of Labor. It united as many as possible of the labor unions of the United States and Canada into one body. Joined by a multitude of local city unions, state and national federations, and special organizations, it finally outnumbered the Knights of Labor. In addition to such organizations, the workers in many industries are separately combined in unions, like the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, the Order of Railway Conductors, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, and of Railway Trainmen.

Objects of the Laborers' Unions. — The laborers have united to advance their own interests. This usually means to better their surroundings while working, secure higher wages, and shorten the hours of work. Many of their demands appeared so reasonable that they were supported by other people in the community. Wise railroad managers, manufacturers, and business men generally became eager to improve the situation. The result is that the conditions under which work is done have changed for the better. For example, the

hours of work a hundred years ago were from "sunrise to sunset." In the early factories employees worked 14 or 15 hours, part of the time by candle-light. About 1840 some trades reduced the hours to ten. In many trades the hours are now eight or nine. The average length of the working-day for all is only a little over nine.

Memorable Strikes. — Formerly when the laborers were discontented with the wages or conditions of their work, they could go to the frontier and take up land. As the public lands gave out, laborers turned more and more to another way of bettering wages and shortening hours. This was by the strike. The men in a single factory or mill or railroad stopped work. Sometimes they were able to induce the workers in other occupations to join them. Since 1877 hundreds of strikes have occurred in the United States every year. Some of them have brought on battles between the laborers and the employers.

In 1877 a railroad reduced the wages of its men. It had done so several times. On this occasion the employees abandoned their trains, and tried to prevent others from running them. The strike spread to other railroads, and soon covered many of the railroads in fourteen states. At several places conflicts occurred between the strikers and the soldiers sent by the state to keep order. Twenty-two were killed in one of these battles. Pittsburgh suffered the most in the destruction of cars, depots, and freight, and in the loss of life. The city barely escaped a terrible fire during the struggle between the angry forces. This was the first great strike in American history.

An even greater strike broke out in June, 1894, in the Pullman Car Company's shops in Chicago. The company had reduced the wages unjustly, as the laborers felt. They had other grievances against the company. For one thing, the Pullman Company was the landlord, owning all the

houses of the town in which the laborers lived. The people disliked being both tenants and employees of the same company. The strike which followed was long. The company steadily refused to arbitrate its differences with the men. Efforts were made to boycott all railroads using Pullman cars. The strike spread. The railroad men joined the strikers. The western Knights of Labor also struck, out of sympathy with the Pullman employees. Business almost came to a standstill as far west as the Rocky Mountains. President Cleveland sent United States soldiers to Chicago with orders to stop the interference with the railroads, partly because the trains carried the mails. Another reason was that the strike interfered with the welfare of people in no way interested in the original strike.

The federal courts aided the President by issuing "blanket injunctions." By these all men were warned not to interfere with the railroads. Those who disobeyed were arrested, taken before a judge, and were tried by him, without the right to have the testimony heard by a jury as in ordinary cases.

The loss of property was immense. If the value of the property destroyed and the loss of profits and wages be added, the amount would be about $80,000,000. Although few strikes have been as destructive, the total losses from them each year are very large. Fortunately, it is becoming more common to lay the demands of the employees, especially of railroads or coal mines, and the claims of their employers, before fair-minded men on "Boards of Arbitration" or "Boards of Conciliation." When this is done, each side agrees to accept the decision of the board.

Employers' Associations. — The organization of strong labor unions led to the formation of employers' associations to resist the demands of the employees. Local manufacturers have, like their employees, formed local unions or associations.

Owners in the same business have formed great national employers' associations. In 1875 the United States potters formed an association. A few years later the stove manufacturers united into the Stove Founders' National Defence Association. Many others have been formed. In 1893 a National Association of Manufacturers was organized, which, like the Knights of Labor, included men from different parts of the country. In 1903 appeared the Citizens' Industrial Association. National, district, and local employers' associations united to form this, as different labor organizations united to form the American Federation of Labor. One object of unions of employers has been to make "collective" bargains about wages with all the employees in their particular industry. If the employees in the trade should strike, all the employers would stand together in the struggle.

Welfare Work. — Some manufacturers and business men have been more eager to better the condition of their employees than to resist their demands. They have provided night schools, kindergartens, and nurseries. Others have provided amusement parks, and public baths, and have built model factories. Sometimes the idea is simply that men will work better if they are comfortable, and that the profits of the business will be increased. But "welfare work" has often been due to a real interest in the welfare of the employees and a desire to increase their opportunities of self-development.

Coöperation in Work. — Employees and employers have not been the only classes to work together for their own good. In many parts of the United States the farmers or fruit growers have united to sell their products. In 1867 an organization called the Patrons of Husbandry was formed to make farming a pleasanter and more profitable occupation. It was commonly called the Granger movement, from the grange or local society. Local, district, state, and national

organizations were formed similar to the labor unions. Another organization of farmers, started a few years later, grew about 1887 into the National Farmers' Alliance. These organizations have formed coöperative stores, creameries, elevators, and warehouses. They have done a great work in teaching the farmers how to help themselves and in bringing them together for their social welfare. Some of the organizations have established libraries, reading courses, lyceums, and local institutes or clubs for the study of questions in which they were especially interested. In such ways they have taken part in the educational movement of the time.

QUESTIONS

1. Why have cities grown rapidly in late years? Where are the majority of the people in the older states living?

2. Where do the immigrants usually settle? From what parts of Europe do they come? What classes of laborers are excluded? With what kind of work do the immigrants generally start in the United States? What valuable skill and taste do they bring to America?

3. Why do so many people live in dismal tenements in crowded parts of cities?

4. What is a labor union? Why did the laborers form such societies? Describe the larger organizations which the laborers have formed.

5. What change has taken place in the length of the working day? What did laborers formerly do when discontented with their wages or conditions of work? What have they done in recent years? Tell the story of one strike, either one described in the text or one that has occurred in the neighborhood?

6. What method has been used frequently to settle differences between the laborers and employers without striking?

7. What step have the employers taken to combat the demands of the labor unions? Name some of the Employers' Associations which have been formed.

8. Describe "welfare work."

9. In what work mentioned in the text have people begun to coöperate or unite either for buying or selling?

EXERCISES

1. Members of the class should gather information from their parents or friends wherever possible on (1) the wages in Europe when they left, (2) wages

they found paid in the United States, and (3) the change which took place in the work of each in moving from Europe to the United States.

2. Is anything done in the local factories or mills that may be called "welfare work"? Visit some factory to see the conditions under which the laborers work.

3. Describe any case of coöperation either in buying or selling of which the members of the class know. Were the results successful?

THE IMMIGRANT STATION AT ELLIS ISLAND IN NEW YORK HARBOR

CHAPTER XLV

NEW METHODS OF GOVERNMENT

To the Victors belong the Spoils. — Soon after the Civil War the American people were startled with stories of the dishonesty of public officials, especially in the large cities. The citizens had been so occupied with building factories, laying railroads, sinking mines, forming companies for trade, and in settling the West, that they had not watched officials carefully. Two harmful ideas about government, dating from Jackson's time, still prevailed. One was that any citizen was capable of holding office. The other was that the victorious political party might put out of office all its opponents and fill their places with its own members. The party leaders regarded offices as "spoils" which belonged to the victors in the elections. The result was that every new mayor or governor or president changed all the office-holders under him down to the clerks and errand boys. The task of dividing offices as rewards and favors among friends and party workers kept the best public officers busy when other things needed attention. Lincoln, besieged by office-seekers at the opening of the Civil War, declared that he seemed "like one sitting in a palace, assigning apartments to importunate applicants, while the structure is on fire and likely soon to perish in ashes." Matters had not improved since his day.

Political Bosses. — Party managers, "political bosses" they were generally called, often managed the affairs of government to suit themselves. State legislatures and city councils

did as they ordered. When purchases were made or streets opened or buildings constructed, the state or city was charged prices higher than those charged to private individuals for similar things, and the difference was divided between the sellers and the officials. This method has been named "graft."[1] A group of such "grafters," called at the time a "ring," led by William M. Tweed, stole $100,000,000 from New York City in three years. They paid a plasterer $3,000,000 for work they said he had done. As they alone kept the city accounts, no one could tell how they had used the money raised by taxation. In 1871 the thefts of the Tweed Ring were discovered and some of the band were punished. Such stories aroused the people.

THE "TWEED RING"
From a cartoon by Nast

Civil Service Reform. — A remedy for dishonesty and mismanagement was urged. Part of the officials were elected, but the larger number were appointed by the president or the governor or the mayor. It seemed clear that those officials who were appointed should be chosen solely because they were capable of doing their work well. The reformers argued that their fitness could be determined best by an examination in which all candidates were asked the same questions. This new method of selecting men went by the name of "civil service reform," or the "merit system." Several men,

[1] The farmer grafts upon a branch of one tree a twig coming from another. So the dishonest official adds to the expense of a piece of work money for himself.

among them Congressman Thomas Jenckes of Rhode Island, George William Curtis, editor of *Harper's Weekly*, and Senator Carl Schurz of Missouri, worked many years for the reform. Grant favored their plan and urged it in his messages.

James A. Garfield

But Congress did not wish to lose the influence that the old system of appointment gave it, and little progress was made in Grant's time. His successor, President Hayes, and the next President, James A. Garfield, were also anxious to bring about the change.

In 1881, a few months after Garfield became President, a disappointed office-seeker assassinated him. This event showed one danger of the spoils system. It moved the people, and, finally, Congress to action. In 1883 a long step was taken by giving to three Civil Service Commissioners the duty of holding examinations to test the fitness of candidates for certain offices. The plan applied chiefly to clerkships in Washington, but it has been slowly extended. Nearly every President since 1883 has increased the number of government officials who must pass an examination. More than two-thirds of the positions under the United States Government were by 1912 filled in this way. The successful candidates are expected to hold the office permanently, or until they are promoted. In 1910 President Taft urged that the "merit system" be extended to all postmasterships and to all offices in the diplomatic and consular service. Seven years later President Wilson adopted the reform for the postmasterships, putting about 10,000 postmasters under civil service rules. The same plan has been slowly applied in filling state and city offices. New York was the first state to adopt it, making the change in the same year that the

national government began it; Philadelphia was the first city to introduce it.

Mismanaging American Cities. — In spite of such attempts to place competent men in office, Americans have found it difficult to secure honest city government. They have often excused their failures on the ground that their cities have grown with great rapidity. English and German cities, however, have grown with equal rapidity and are well managed. The reasons of American failure have been of two kinds. The principal one is that citizens have been more interested in their business than in their government. The other is that many cities have been organized in such clumsy fashion that honest officials have had a hard task to manage their affairs well.

Changes in City Government. — The cities have borrowed parts of their organization from the national or state governments. Instead of a governor or president they have a mayor; instead of a legislature or congress they have a council. The council, like the state legislature and the national Congress, was commonly made up of two bodies. One body was supposed to correct the mistakes of the other.

Most cities have abolished one of the bodies, concluding that two did more harm than good. New York City made the change in 1873. Many towns as they grew into large cities adopted newer and simpler forms of government. In recent years some have gone much farther, replacing mayor and council by a small commission or board.

Galveston was the first city to try the commission plan. When a large part of it was wrecked by a great storm which swept over the Gulf of Mexico in 1900, the officials seemed helpless. The city needed better leadership. Several prominent men asked the state legislature to entrust the affairs of Galveston to a board or commission of five men. The legislature consented and a commission was chosen. One of the

commissioners was called the mayor. The new government accomplished such wonders that other cities adopted the plan. By the end of 1916, nearly 500 cities had introduced commission government. Large cities like St. Paul and New Orleans are among the number. In some places — for example, Staunton, Virginia — the council or commissioners hired a city manager.[1]

The Short Ballot. — The plan of governing cities by small commissions has reduced the number of officials whom the voter must choose. The same result has been gained by entrusting to the mayor the appointment of the important officials, who form his "cabinet" and who manage the different departments of the city. The citizen in that case knows whom to blame or to praise.

In many state and local elections the voter has been obliged to choose his list of officials from among over 100 names on what is called a "blanket" ballot. This has given reason to the cry for the "short ballot," in order that the voter may make fewer and more intelligent choices.

Direct Primaries. — About 1889 another reform was begun, first in the South and West. The people had grown tired of the way the party managers controlled conventions,[2] leaving the citizen no choice but to vote for men whom the managers selected. Calhoun had said this would be the outcome when the convention system was first adopted. The southern and western states provided a system of primaries, at which the people had the right to nominate the candidates for election. The primaries took the place of the conventions. The system has varied considerably from state to state. The political parties often held their primaries at the same time. In some places if the candidate receives a majority of all the votes at the primary, no further voting at a regular election is necessary. In others the voter is allowed to give both his

[1] Staunton adopted the plan in 1908.

[2] See page 325.

first and second choice in the primaries as well as in the final election. This is called preferential voting.[1]

Initiative and Referendum. — Another reform found popular favor in the western states where the railroads had often controlled the members of the state legislatures. In 1898 South Dakota adopted the "Initiative and Referendum."[2] By means of the Initiative, if a certain part or fraction of the voters proposes a law, the legislature must consider it. If the legislature refuses to adopt it, it may then be submitted to the entire body of voters at an election. By the Referendum, if a certain number of the voters demand, laws which the legislature has just passed must also be laid before the voters for approval or rejection. Such a plan makes attempts to control or bribe a legislature unprofitable. It also enables the voters to have a part in lawmaking. The new system has moved slowly eastward into several of the older states.[3]

The Recall. — Still another plan to give citizens a more direct control of their officials is the "Recall." It was first adopted in the city of Los Angeles. According to this plan the citizens, upon petition of a certain number of them, are required to decide at an election whether an official's term should be ended earlier than at the close of the period for

[1] By 1916 laws provided direct primaries for nomination of candidates in 42 out of 48 states in the Union. Preferential voting has been adopted in 21 states.

[2] South Dakota was merely the first state to adopt these as a regular part of the mode of making laws. The Initiative and Referendum had long been known and frequently used in other states for special purposes. This was especially true of the Referendum, which was regularly used for the ratification of constitutions. Both were part of the Swiss system of government.

[3] By 1916 the Initiative and Referendum were employed in 20 states. South Dakota adopted the system in 1898, Utah in 1900, Oregon in 1902, Nevada in 1904 (part), Montana in 1906, Oklahoma in 1907, Main in 1908, Missouri in 1909, Arkansas and Colorado in 1910, Arizona, New Mexico, and California in 1911, Ohio in 1912, etc.

which he was originally chosen.[1] Many cities have followed the example of Los Angeles when they have remodeled their methods of government. Oregon adopted the Recall for state officials in 1908. The Recall, like impeachment, has seldom been used. It goes much farther than the method of impeachment, threatening the unpopular official, while impeachment threatens only the officials guilty of "high crimes and misdemeanors." [2]

Woman Suffrage. — One consequence of the change in the methods of manufacturing, replacing household industries by work in the factory, has been a rapid increase in the number of women who work side by side with men. Women have, more than before, taken the lead in the great reforms of the time. Many of them have demanded the right to vote and to have a share in managing the affairs of city, state, and nation. In 1869, when Wyoming organized its territorial government, women were included among the voters. When the territory became a state, they kept the right to vote. In 1893 Wyoming's next neighbor, Colorado, adopted the same plan. By 1917 more than one-third of the states had granted the privilege of voting to women.[3]

Direct Election of Senators. — One important change in government applied to the national system. Senators had always been elected by the state legislatures. Several cases where candidates were known to have bribed legislatures to vote for them aroused much opposition to the old way. Besides, legislatures often spent much of their ordinary session in a quarrel over who should represent the state in the United

[1] The Recall like the Initiative and Referendum had long been in regular use in Switzerland.

[2] By 1913 the Recall had been adopted in eight states and many cities.

[3] The states are Wyoming (1869), Colorado (1893), Utah (1896), Idaho (1896), Washington (1910), California (1911), Arizona, Kansas, Oregon (all in 1912), Illinois (partial, 1913), Montana and Nevada (1914), Indiana, Michigan, North Dakota, Ohio, and Rhode Island (partial, 1917).

States Senate. In 1913 an amendment to the Constitution took away from the legislatures their privilege of choosing senators and gave it to the people of the states in their regular fall elections.

City Planning. — The new interest in the management of cities has shown itself in other ways besides methods of

THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON
The Supreme Court, the Senate, and the House of Representatives meet in the Capitol

government. Many Americans, as well as Europeans, have ceased to look upon their city merely as a very large, haphazard collection of houses, clustered about factories, stores, railroad stations, and steamboat wharves. They have begun to think that cities should be planned as carefully as a person plans his dwelling. They argue that each person, however small his income, should have a share of sunlight and pure air, and should be able to go rapidly and cheaply to his place of labor. The location of residences and factories, of large and small streets, and of railway lines, should be planned carefully. The builder of one house should not be allowed to make his neighbor's house uncomfortable. Parks, play-

grounds, bath houses, and social halls are already provided in many places. The citizens are beginning to work together to make the city healthful and beautiful, as well as successful in its industries.

Some Interesting Presidential Elections. — The Republican party was in power in the national government most of the time from the Civil War to 1913. At the close of Johnson's administration in 1869 General U. S. Grant became President. He owed his election to the feeling in the North that next to Lincoln he had done the most to save the Union. Some of the men whom he chose as advisers were opposed by many of their own party. In 1872 these discontented Republicans broke away and formed the Liberal Republican party. They nominated for the Presidency Horace Greeley, editor of the New York *Tribune*. Although he was also supported by the Democrats, he was badly defeated by Grant, who was the candidate of the regular Republicans. The Republicans were also successful in the elections of 1876 and 1880, in which their candidates were Rutherford B. Hayes and James A. Garfield. In 1884 the Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland. He had been mayor of Buffalo and governor of New York. In these offices he had made a name as one who paid little regard to politics and managed public business "as a good business man manages his private concerns." The independent Republicans, called "Mugwumps," voted for Cleveland, because they liked his work as a reformer. They distrusted his Republican opponent, James G. Blaine. Cleveland was elected, and the country had a Democratic

GROVER CLEVELAND

President for the first time since Buchanan. Congress, however, was divided. The Republicans had a majority in the Senate. A Democratic House and President could do little with the Senate against them. In 1887 the two parties agreed on one memorable law, the Interstate Commerce Act. By it Congress provided for a commission of five members which should see that the railroads carrying goods from one state to another treated all shippers fairly. The power of the commission was enlarged in later years.

Benjamin Harrison

In 1888 the Republicans won the election, making Benjamin Harrison President. Four years later the Democrats reelected Cleveland. Whether the tariff should remain high was one of the main issues in the second election. Another was whether all the silver brought to the government mint should be coined into silver dollars at the ratio of 16 silver dollars to one gold dollar.[1] The hardest contest over such questions came in the election of 1896. The Democrats put forward William J. Bryan of Nebraska, and the Republicans William McKinley of Ohio. McKinley won, and became President when Cleveland's term ended.

William McKinley

[1] The tariff was the main issue in the eastern states, and silver in the western.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT

McKinley had barely begun a second term as President in 1901 when he was assassinated. For the third time in the history of the United States a President was killed. This time an anarchist was the assassin. The Vice-President, Theodore Roosevelt, became McKinley's successor. President Roosevelt was reëlected in 1904, and his Secretary of War, William H. Taft, followed him in 1908. New issues had gradually arisen in the long period of Republican control of national affairs. The tariff remained little changed. How to save the country's natural resources and how to control the great trusts or corporations divided the parties even more sharply. The Republicans were not agreed among themselves upon these questions. In the election of 1912 one branch of the Republican party, led by former President Roosevelt, and called the Progressives, battled with the other parties. The Republicans, the Democrats, and the Socialists each offered an answer to the new questions. With the Republican party divided, the Democrats elected their candidate, Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey.

WILLIAM H. TAFT

The followers of the new President had a large majority in Congress. Laws to carry out the more important party pledges were passed. The tariff on imports was much reduced, and a little later a tariff commission was established to help Congress fix fair duties on imports. Laws were passed to give the Government of the United States fuller control of trusts and other large business organizations. A system of Federal Reserve Banks was created to do the work formerly done by the United States Bank which President Jackson had destroyed. The Reserve Banks represent the government in the banking business of the country and supply the amount of paper money, Federal Reserve notes, which is needed for carrying on trade. A law of 1916, somewhat like the Federal Reserve act, established a system of Federal Farm Loan Banks to aid the farmers with government loans at reasonable rates of interest. Before this, in 1914, the United States had decided to build a government system of railroads for Alaska, in order to open for settlement a new frontier and to put on the market for the benefit of the American people the products of its forests, its mines and its soil. These were important laws, but the completion of the Panama Canal, and the Great European War attracted more attention. The story of the Panama Canal, which had been begun in Roosevelt's time, and of the Great War, will be told in the last chapter. In 1916 President Wilson was chosen for a second term, though the number of his party in Congress was reduced by the election.

Woodrow Wilson

QUESTIONS

1. What harmful ideas about government prevailed long after Jackson's time? What is the meaning of the phrase "political boss"? "grafter"? How did the Tweed "ring" steal millions of dollars from New York City?

2. What remedy for dishonesty in government was urged in Grant's time? Who were the leaders in the movement for Civil Service Reform? What was the effect of the assassination of President Garfield on Civil Service Reform? Describe the Act of 1883. Has the "Merit System" been extended since 1883?

3. Why were American cities badly managed? What changes have been made in city government to make it simpler? Where did the commission plan of government originate? What plan originated in Staunton, Virginia?

4. What other method besides the commission plan has been used to reduce the number of officials for whom the citizen must vote?

5. What are the Initiative and Referendum? What is the Recall? Why were these adopted in the United States?

6. What new class of voters has lately been added? Where did this movement begin?

7. What change took place in 1913 in the method of electing United States Senators?

8. What is meant by "city planning"? What changes have taken place in the methods of conducting campaigns?

EXERCISES

1. Find out whether the federal, state, and town offices of the locality are filled by the Merit system or by the Spoils System.

2. The members of the class should describe the local government of the place where they live. When was the present form of local government adopted? Is it satisfactory to the voters?

3. Examine a ballot of the last election. Was it a "short ballot" or a "Blanket Ballot"? Were the candidates nominated by direct primaries or by conventions?

4. Do the voters of the state have a share in law-making by the Initiative and Referendum? Do they have the right of Recall of officials? If so, have any officials been recalled?

5. Review the extension of the number of voters, pages 323–324. Find out whether woman suffrage has been adopted in other countries.

Important Dates:

1883. Congress passes the Civil Service Reform Act.
1893. Colorado is the first state to adopt Woman Suffrage.
1896. The Free Silver Campaign with William McKinley and William Jennings Bryan as Republican and Democratic candidates.
1915. Opening of the Panama Canal.
1917. The United States enters the Great War against Germany.

CHAPTER XLVI

THE NEW EDUCATION

The Schools Since 1876. — The last thirty or forty years have seen as great changes in the schools as in manufacturing and in methods of government. Not only has the number of pupils steadily increased, until in 1910 it numbered nearly eighteen millions, but new kinds of schools have been added. Much of the new work prepares the pupils directly for what they expect to do after they leave school. The improvement in managing schools and in teaching the ordinary subjects, reading, arithmetic, and geography, has also been important.

Graded Schools. — The early schools were ungraded, as many rural schools still are. Each teacher kept the same pupils from the time they began their A B C's until they left school. The division of the schools of cities and larger towns into grades was made before the Civil War. In recent years the plan has been extended to the rural schools. A large township school often takes the place of several district schools. In such cases wagons are provided to carry the children to and from school. The school year has also been lengthened. Some cities keep their schools open throughout the year, except for short vacations. Pupils may begin subjects in the middle, as well as at the beginning, of the year. By this plan those who are kept away for a time by illness lose only a few months instead of a whole year.

High Schools. — Many public high schools and private academies had been established before the Civil War, but

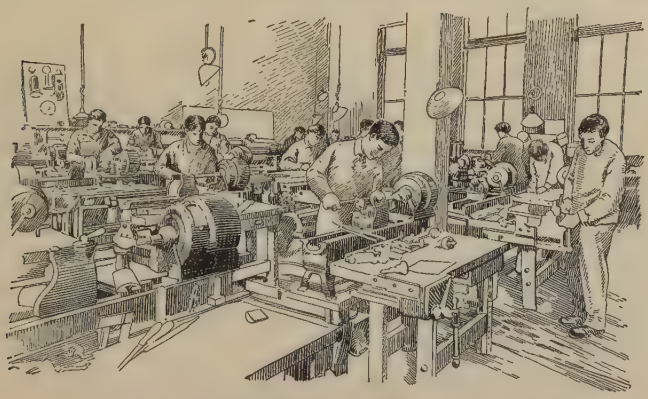
from 1870 to 1900 the number of high schools increased rapidly. By the end of that period every town or city and many rural districts had high schools. These high schools do for their communities much that the early American colleges did for the first groups of settlements.

New Subjects. — The chief task of the graded school is still to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography. Every year the number of persons in the United States who cannot read and write is decreasing. In 1910 it was only seven or eight in every hundred, and only three in each hundred of those born in the United States. In this matter the United States is behind Great Britain and Germany, but ahead of Italy and Austria.

In the upper grades the pupils learn more about history and government than did their fathers. In history they study more about the way people lived, about industry and trade, and less about war. Another important subject, called hygiene, teaches the pupil how to keep the body healthy. In many schools the boys are taught to work in wood, and the girls to cook and to sew. Some schools have gardens in which the pupils may learn to raise vegetables for the use of their families. These changes have led parents to make a greater effort to keep their children in school. Several states have passed laws forbidding children to leave school until they have reached a certain grade and are fifteen or sixteen years of age.

Changes in High Schools. — The first high schools, especially in the eastern states, existed chiefly to prepare boys for college. Latin, Greek, and mathematics were the principal subjects. The American people soon concluded that such schools could educate only a few of the boys and girls, because only a few went to college. Before 1860 the Boston English High School had added many other subjects, including bookkeeping and surveying. Later the high schools began to

group their students in "courses." Those who intended to go to college were put into one group and called "classical" students. Within the last fifteen or twenty years still greater changes have taken place. Separate high schools have been founded with the aim of teaching their students what they



A Technical High School which runs Evenings

need to know in the work for which they are preparing. The Manual Training or Technical High Schools train boys for work in wood and iron, for drafting, designing, and other tasks. They prepare girls for designing, sewing, and cooking. After finishing the course of study most of the students begin work at once, while others go to higher technical schools to obtain greater knowledge and skill. The Commercial High Schools prepare boys and girls for the practical work of business. In communities where no such separate high schools exist, the newer subjects are taught in the ordinary high schools. In some states agriculture is now taught in the high schools or in special schools.

Agricultural High Schools. — Agricultural high schools teach their pupils how to manage a farm, to grow fruit, to care for animals, and to conduct a dairy. They also teach many of the subjects taught in other high schools. In some

of these schools, especially in Wisconsin, the teachers not only teach the boys and girls who attend but they also aid farmers of the region in planning their buildings and drainage, in testing seeds and soils, in selecting animals and trees, and they assist the housewives in arranging their kitchens and drains, and in preparing and testing food. Each high school has its libraries, shops, laboratories, and workrooms. Indeed the new aim is to make the rural high schools model school-farms, and those in the cities model school-shops and factories. The study of books is retained so that the students may understand the world about them as well as be fitted to do some useful work in it.

Colleges and Universities. — The growth of colleges and universities has been as rapid as that of common schools and high schools. Wise and generous men have given large sums to the older colleges, in order that they may do more work. Other men have founded new colleges and universities. The gifts of one man founded Johns Hopkins University, in Baltimore, in 1876; of another Leland Stanford University, at Palo Alto, California, in 1891; of still another re-founded Chicago University in 1892. Other generous men have established special institutions in which highly trained men and women endeavor to discover ways of preventing disease or to find methods by which the people may do their work better.[1]

The states west of the Alleghanies, as well as a few of the older states, have placed a university at the top of their plan of public education. They thus offer free education not only to the child in the early grades of the common school and in the high school but also to the young man and woman in the state university.

As soon as the Northwest Territory was opened for settle-

[1] For example, the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research in New York City and the Carnegie Institution in Washington.

ment, the national government began to give land for the founding of colleges and universities. During the Civil War it made a still more liberal offer, promising each state many thousand acres, the amount in proportion to its population. The money obtained from the sale of the lands was used to

EXPERIMENT STATION FARM
United States Department of Agriculture

pay for teaching agriculture and other technical or practical arts. Some states founded separate agricultural or technical colleges, others gave the new work to their universities. Massachusetts divided the income from its share between an Agricultural College at Amherst and an Institute of Technology at Boston. New York, partly by use of the land grant, partly by the use of its ordinary income, and partly by gifts of citizens like Ezra Cornell, built up a great state university at Ithaca, called Cornell University.

In 1887 the United States again came to the aid of higher education, giving each state $15,000 a year for the improvement of agriculture. This money is used to maintain experimental or practice farms and dairies and laboratories for the study of problems connected with agriculture. Farming is becoming less a mixture of drudgery and chance and more a skilled occupation like medicine and law.

Higher Education for All. — The colleges in the colonies were established mainly to educate young men who expected to become Christian ministers. The graduates of these colleges also became lawyers and physicians. For a long time few went to college or the university except those who intended to enter such professions or to become writers and teachers. With the founding of technical or engineering colleges a change came, especially within twenty or thirty years. Now the young man or woman, whether he or she is going into one of the older professions or into industry, or business, or is to manage a farm, may find in some department of the best universities training for each kind of work. The students not only use books, but they work in shops and laboratories upon tasks similar to those for which they are preparing. The states have also established normal schools in which teachers are trained for the public schools.

Many states are attempting to carry opportunities for higher education to the people in their homes. The University of Wisconsin, for example, has more students working under its guidance while living at home than it has regular students at Madison. The University offers courses to the people by correspondence, or in classes in selected towns of the state. Teachers from the University guide the students in practice work, assist them in their studies, and help them by lectures on difficult subjects. In such ways the universities are working for the whole people more than formerly. They still carry on studies and experiments in order to broaden knowledge; they now do much more to spread among all the people information about every new discovery or invention. Finally, by sending their teachers throughout the state, they help officials, the voters, business men, and all workers to solve their problems or do their work to better advantage.

School-Houses as Social Centers. — Some cities and states have begun to make larger use of their school-houses. The

schools are supplied with books and magazines and newspapers in order to provide a reading-room for old as well as young, or with a traveling library sent from the state or city library. Club rooms, gymnasiums, bath rooms, and playgrounds provide other means of recreation for the people of the neighborhood. This plan makes the school-house a people's club and an educational center.

The Neighborhood Using the School Building

Parks and Playgrounds. — In this period, also, many citizens have learned that it is not enough to provide schools where boys and girls may remain a few hours of the day for most of the year. They have concluded that the cities should provide parks and playgrounds where the young people may enjoy healthful games after school hours instead of loafing about the street corners or running risks by playing in the streets. Such playgrounds are not mere open fields, but grounds suitable for games, under the care of some one who understands how interesting games are played. Chicago set a good example to other cities by providing a playground in Washington Park in 1876. Twenty years passed before much

more was done there or in other cities. Then Chicago appointed a commission whose business it was to establish playgrounds in parts of the city so crowded with buildings that little open space for play remained. Other cities took up the work. In 1910 more than a third of the cities of the United States had such playgrounds.

These playgrounds are for men and women as well as children. Near the grounds a large house has often been

A Chicago Playground

built, suitable for neighborhood parties, for picnics, or for dances. Park and house together are called "recreation centers." By means of them thousands of people have gained for the first time an opportunity for wholesome play. Five million persons used the recreation centers of Chicago in one year. Such are a few of the new methods of education for the people.

QUESTIONS

1. What changes have taken place in the town and rural schools since 1876? In the high schools?

2. What new subjects are taught in the schools? In the high schools? What special kinds of high schools have been built?

3. Describe the method and aims of the agricultural and technical high schools.

4. How did the colleges and universities secure money to extend their work? What has the United States done to help higher education? What have the states done?

5. For what were the colleges in the colonies established? For what reason do people now go to college?

6. How do the universities now attempt to broaden their usefulness?

7. What use do some places make of their school houses? Why do cities establish playgrounds?

EXERCISES

1. Locate the colleges and universities of the state. How are such schools supported? What kind of education does each offer?

2. Find examples of work done by neighboring colleges or universities similar to that done by the University of Wisconsin.

3. Visit some school center and city playground and describe its work.

CHAPTER XLVII

THE REPUBLIC AND THE LARGER WORLD

Struggle for Colonies. — The United States for more than a century found plenty of lands to be colonized in the Mississippi Valley, the Far West, and on the Pacific Coast. Few Americans desired to conquer colonies beyond the seas. Meanwhile other nations had again become rivals in the struggle for colonial territories. The English, ever since the Revolutionary War had deprived them of the best part of their colonial possessions, had been busy adding one new colony to another. Their colonial empire had become world-wide, and they could boast that upon it the "sun never sets." The French, who had lost the Mississippi and St. Lawrence valleys in 1763, had also been building up a new colonial empire, this time in northern Africa and southeastern Asia. Since 1884 the Germans had been establishing colonies in Africa, on the coast of China, and in the Pacific islands. In 1898 the United States followed such examples, taking possession of several colonies after a war with Spain.

The Spanish War, 1898. — President McKinley, early in his administration, was obliged to decide how the United States should act in a war which had broken out between the Cubans and the Spaniards. Spain had ruled over Cuba since the time of Columbus. The Cubans, like the Mexicans and South Americans long before, were trying to put an end to Spanish rule and to found an independent republic. The war had been raging two or three years and the island was being laid waste. Stories of the cruelty of Spanish generals and of the sufferings of the Cubans aroused the sympathy of

the American people. Some Americans had property in Cuba worth, all told, nearly $50,000,000, and they were anxious to have the war stopped.

The Destruction of the "Maine." — It had already become hard to keep the peace between Spain and the United States, so strongly did many Americans urge their government to compel Spain to satisfy the Cubans. The Spaniards, on their side, were enraged at the assistance that Americans privately gave the Cubans. In February, 1898, the American battle-

MANILA AND THE PASIG RIVER

Showing the Magellan monument and the stone bridge connecting the walled city with Binondo

ship *Maine*, at anchor in the harbor of Havana, was blown up, causing the death of two officers and 258 seamen. Most Americans believed that the Spaniards had destroyed the ship and clamored for war against them. McKinley reluctantly yielded and war was declared.

The War. — The conflict with Spain was brief, lasting only from April to August. The Spaniards, who had spent their resources in a vain effort to conquer Cuba, were unprepared for a longer war. On May 1, Commodore George Dewey, with a small fleet, easily destroyed a much inferior Spanish fleet in Manila harbor. Spain sent to Cuban waters a squadron

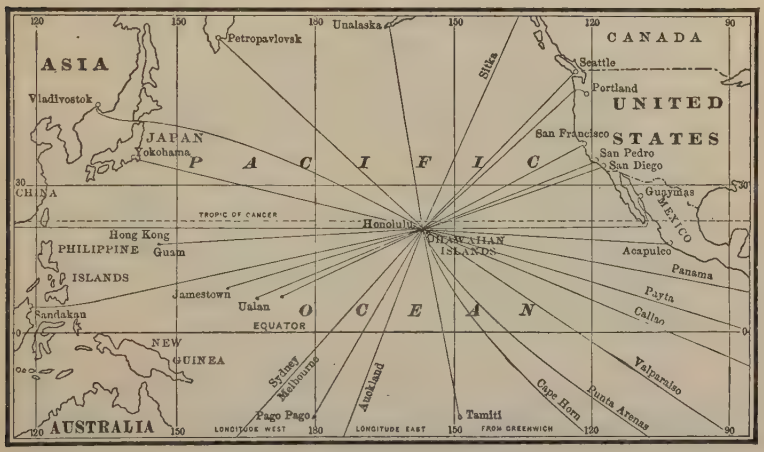
under Admiral Cervera, but it was soon shut up in the harbor of Santiago by a larger American force under the command of Admiral Sampson. In order to make the capture of the Spanish ships in Santiago sure, an army of about 16,000 men, commanded by Major-General Shafter, was transported from Port Tampa, Florida, and landed on the coast near Santiago.[1] Finally, on July 3, the Spanish fleet made a heroic effort to escape through the United States fleet stationed before the entrance to the harbor. After a running fight the Spanish vessels were destroyed. Santiago soon surrendered. Another American army under General Nelson A. Miles over-ran Porto Rico. A third, with some help from the natives, captured the city of Manila, in the Philippines, completing the task that Commodore Dewey had undertaken. About this time the war came to an end.

Spain's Loss of Colonies. — In the treaty with Spain, Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands were ceded to the United States. Spain in return received $20,000,000. Cuba was given its independence. Spain thus lost the last remnant of her once vast colonial empire in the New World. Her influence, nevertheless, remained. The people of the countries of South America, except Brazil, of Central America, Mexico, and several of the West India islands were still largely Spanish.

The New Territories of the United States. — In the midst of the Spanish War Congress annexed the Hawaiian Islands, with the assent of a majority of the inhabitants. These islands are half-way stations to Japan, China, and the Philippine Islands. Any nation which controlled them would possess excellent harbors for its navy and would increase its

[1] One cavalry troop, called the "Rough Riders," under the command of Colonel Leonard Wood and Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, was composed principally of western cowboys, Indians, football players, and adventurers. The doings of this regiment excited much interest throughout the war.

power in the Pacific Ocean. The Hawaiians had first been taught the ways of civilization by American missionaries. Many Americans had settled in the islands. Under their lead a few years before an attempt had been made to overthrow the native rulers and add the islands to the United States. President Cleveland, however, had refused to support this plan of annexation. In the islands, at the present



"The Cross-Roads of the Pacific"

time, besides the Hawaiians and the Americans, there are many Japanese and Chinese.

In the Philippines there are more than 3000 islands. Luzon, the largest, is about the size of Ohio. More than 7,000,000 people inhabit the archipelago, varying from the highly civilized Spaniards and Filipinos, to the rudest savage tribes. The islands are only half explored and the natural resources almost untouched.

When Commodore Dewey attacked the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay, the natives were already trying to overthrow Spanish rule. They welcomed the Americans, whose forces made certain the defeat of the Spaniards. Many of them

were angry when they discovered that they had simply changed masters, and they attacked the American army. This new war lasted about three years. As soon as possible after its close the Americans gave the natives a share in the government of the islands. Americans are divided upon the question whether the Filipinos should be made independent or should remain under American control.

A Public School in Porto Rico

Solving New Problems. — In the newly-gained territories of the United States and in Cuba natives and Americans have worked well together. Much has been done to make the islands more healthful. Major Walter Reed, an army surgeon, discovered that malaria and yellow fever are carried by mosquitoes. He concluded that if these little pests were destroyed, those diseases would die out. It was one of the world's great discoveries. Yellow fever, the scourge of all tropical countries, and especially of the West Indies and the southern cities of the United States, was conquered. Besides helping Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines to conquer disease, and besides building roads and harbors, the United States has tried to establish its free school system among them. More than a thousand American school teachers have been sent to the Philippines.

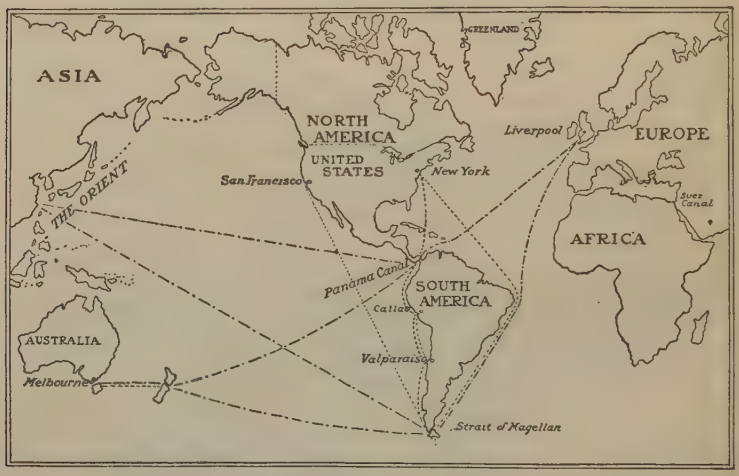
The Panama Canal. — The most interesting story of work done in a tropical climate is that of the Panama Canal. Before the war with Spain began, the battleship *Oregon* was stationed on the Pacific coast. As it was needed in the West Indies for the coming struggle with the Spanish fleet, it was ordered to steam at full speed around South America, a distance of 13,000 miles. The people of the United States waited anxiously for the news that it had reached the other ships in the West Indies. They saw that many days would be saved if there were a canal through the Isthmus of Panama.[1]

Relief Map of the Panama Canal

For centuries men had dreamed of such a canal. They thought that they

[1] There were other reasons which made the people wish to have a canal. For example, an "all-water" highway from the Pacific coast to the Atlantic would enable shippers to send their goods from one coast to the other at less cost than by the railroads.

could cut the passageway which Columbus had tried in vain to discover. In 1536 the king of Spain formed a plan for a ship canal near the Chagres River. A French company started in 1881 to build one, but became bankrupt before the work was half finished, seven years later.[1]



ROUTES PASSING THROUGH THE PANAMA CANAL

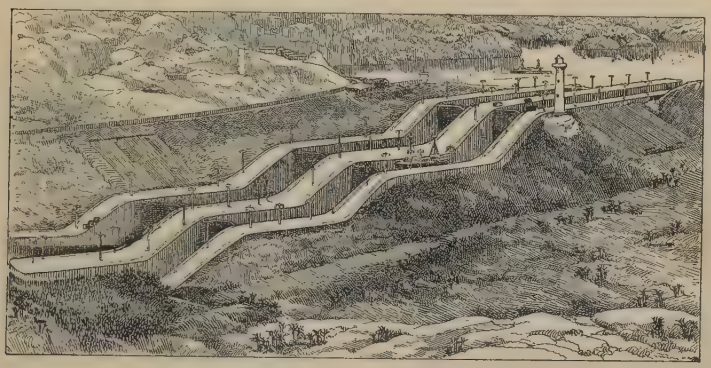
COMPARATIVE DISTANCES

		To San Francisco	The Orient	Melbourne	Callao	Valparaiso
From New York	*via* Magellan	13,135	13,566	12,852	9,613	8,380
	via Panama	5,262	9,798	10,392	3,363	4,633
	Difference	7,873	3,768	2,460	6,250	3,747
From Liverpool	*via* Magellan	13,502	13,933	13,425	9,980	8,747
	via Panama	7,836	12,372	12,966	5,937	7,207
	Difference	5,666	1,661	459	4,043	1,540

The Builders of the Canal. — President Roosevelt and his Secretary of State, John Hay, next took up the task on behalf of the United States. They bought the rights of the French Company, and entered into an agreement with the

[1] The French Company spent $260,000,000 in its efforts to build a canal.

little republic of Panama by which a strip or zone ten miles wide was secured.[1] Medical officers, of whom Colonel Gorgas was the chief, made the region a safe place in which to live, as they had learned to do in Cuba and the island possessions of the United States. An army officer, Colonel Goethals,



Locks in the Panama Canal

was given general charge of the task. Digging the passage-way through the hilly part was begun in 1906, where the French had left off many years before. A dam on the Chagres River, besides furnishing the water for part of the canal, made a waterfall from which dynamos produce sufficient electricity to furnish power and light throughout the canal. The first boats passed through the completed canal in 1914, though the formal opening was celebrated in 1915 with an Exposition at San Francisco. Vessels now pass through the canal in 10 or 12 hours, while the voyage around South America would take from 30 to 45 days. The canal brings the coasts of the United States closer together, and is also rapidly becoming a highway of trade for all the world.

[1] The United States paid the French Company $40,000,000, and to Panama $10,000,000, and promised the latter also an additional yearly payment or rental of $250,000 beginning in 1913.

The Great War in Europe. — President Wilson had been in office only a little more than a year when a great European war broke out. This came as a surprise and a shock to most Americans. They knew that the principal countries of Europe had long been divided into two groups — on one side the Triple Alliance, composed of the German Empire, the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, and Italy; and on the other France, Russia, and Great Britain. They had been told that at several times within ten years these two groups were on the verge of war, and that each country was steadily adding to its army and navy. However, the cry of "Wolf, Wolf!" had been raised so often that nearly every one came to believe that a general European war was impossible.

Suddenly, in July, 1914, Austria-Hungary and Servia became involved in a bitter controversy, growing out of the murder of the heir of the aged Emperor-King Francis Joseph. Russia stood by Servia, and Germany supported Austria-Hungary. Great Britain tried to have the matter settled by a conference, but Austria-Hungary declared war on Servia. When, in consequence, the Czar Nicholas began to assemble the Russian armies, William II, the German Emperor, declared war upon Russia and began to attack France as the ally of Russia. In order to strike at France on a side poorly defended, the German armies forced their way through Belgium, a small neutral country. This, together with the danger to France, brought Great Britain into the conflict. Italy, after holding aloof for months, broke off her alliance with Austria-Hungary and Germany, and joined Great Britain, France, and Russia. A war in which so many great nations took part threatened the United States with serious calamities. The warring governments were not likely to pay careful attention to the rights of neutrals while they were struggling for their own existence. To fulfill the duties of a neutral and to insist upon respect for neutral rights was the difficult task of the President.

The United States enters the War. — For nearly three years President Wilson succeeded in keeping the peace with the warring nations. Meanwhile two things made the majority of the American people sympathize with France and her allies, rather than with Germany and her allies. The first was the terrible revenge the German armies took upon the Belgian cities and towns which tried to resist invasion. The second was the cruel way in which German submarines, or U-boats, attacked merchant ships. It was this that finally brought on war with the United States. In order the more to injure its enemies, especially the British, the German government gave orders to the U-boats to sink all vessels, even those belonging to neutral countries, which sailed either to or from the shores of Great Britain, France, or Italy. The attack was usually made by discharging a torpedo under water, and a fearful explosion was often the first notice a ship had that a U-boat was near. The consequence was that many sailors and passengers were drowned.

The German government claimed in excuse that such " ruthless " deeds were in retaliation for the British blockade which was reducing the Germans to the verge of starvation. It was one thing to carry on a strict blockade — the Federal government had done this during the Civil War — but it was quite another to order American merchant ships sunk without caring for the crews or the passengers. To agree that the United States must yield to the threats of a foreign government or see American citizens drowned on the high seas would be to surrender its rights as an independent nation. First, as a solemn warning, President Wilson broke off diplomatic relations with Germany. When after two months the German attacks only increased, President Wilson asked Congress to declare these to be acts of war. He said that the war had become a struggle for liberty, for the freedom of each people, small or great, to pursue its work in peace,

threatened neither by ambitious princes nor by nations eager to increase their power or their boundaries. Congress accepted his advice and both Houses by large majorities declared war upon the German Imperial Government.

The Hague Tribunal. — One thing had made the war in Europe seem especially distressing; this was the disappointment of the hope that nations had at last found a better way to settle their differences. In the year following the Spanish-American War the United States took part in a meeting of the great nations for the purpose of finding a better way to prevent wars. The United States had already settled about 60 disputes by arbitration. No nation except England had so good a record. Upon the suggestion of the Czar of Russia a conference was held at The Hague. Twenty-nine nations were represented. The United States, because of its experience with arbitration, was able to take a leading part. The conference agreed that each government should appoint four judges who should form a Hague Court of Arbitration. From the list of judges any two nations might select a small court by which their dispute could be settled. The plan would save delay in forming a special court, and would keep before the world a better way than warfare for the settlement of disputes. Another and larger meeting, this time at President Roosevelt's suggestion, was held at The Hague in 1907. Andrew Carnegie soon caused a great peace palace to be built for the Hague Tribunal and for the use of the nations in their conferences. Some have called it the first building in the capital of a United States of the World.

Looking Backward. — It is more than 300 years since the first settlements were made within the territory of the United States. More than 25,000,000 Europeans have left the Old World for this part of the New World.[1] The number includes 10,000,000 English, Irish, Scotch, and Welsh, 5,000,000

[1] These estimates are for the period from 1607 to 1910.

Germans, nearly 2,000,000 from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, 4,000,000 Slavs, and 4,000,000 Italians, French, Spaniards, and Portuguese. Immigrants or their descendants make up the 100,000,000 inhabitants of the United States. This is a population greater than that of any nation of Europe except Russia.[1]

A new Europe has grown up in North America. The skill, the knowledge, and the ideals of many nations have been mingled together to form the American civilization. The history of America began with a race among explorers who were trying to find a short passage to the Spice Islands of the East. It soon became a history of the way in which thousands and then millions of the people of an older and crowded world found room and opportunity in a new world.

The Present Task. — Much of the work which the pioneers of each period did was hurried, and sometimes it was wasteful. The wealth of the land seemed so boundless that it did not appear necessary to care for game, or trees, or soil. This is the task of the new pioneers. They already understand that they must seek to preserve the wealth which is the nation's inheritance. The waste places must be watered and planted, and the soil must be used more wisely and the forests made alive again with game. Some call this work "conservation."

The new pioneers have another task. Although all have had a share in the government, many have been too eager to organize industries, or manage trade, or open mines, to do their full duty as citizens of a self-governing nation. Without the help of all, the government of even a republic may fall into the hands of a few. The task here is also one of "conservation," guarding the liberties won by the men of past generations. It is also one of progress, that the life of cities may be more wholesome, that the rewards of work in city and

[1] Not counting the dependencies or parts of European nations in other continents.

country may be distributed more fairly, and that justice and brotherhood may be the watchword alike of city, state, and nation.

QUESTIONS

1. Where did England, France, and Germany obtain colonies in the nineteenth century? When did the United States obtain colonies beyond the seas? How did the United States obtain its colonies?

2. Why did the people of the United States want to stop the war in Cuba? What reason had the Spaniards for becoming enraged at the people of the United States? What was the effect of the destruction of the *Maine?*

3. What happened during the brief war with Spain? What colonies did Spain lose by the war? In what ways did Spanish influence remain in the New World?

4. What colony had the United States obtained during the war with Spain? What people live in this colony? Why did the United States have a war with the Filipinos?

5. What was the discovery of Major Walter Reed? What has the United States done for its colonies?

6. Why did the people of the United States desire a Panama Canal? Who had tried to build one? What did the medical officers of the United States do to aid in the work?

7. What way of settling disputes between nations was established in 1899?

8. What nations went to war in 1914? What other nations were later involved? Why did the United States enter the war?

9. How many European immigrants have come to America in the three hundred years and more of its history? What nations have sent the largest numbers of these? What tasks have the new pioneers in the United States?

EXERCISES

1. Learn as much as possible about the resources, geography, and people of the colonies.

2. What nations should the Panama Canal benefit by shortening the routes of trade? See map, page 528, with the chief distances by the old routes as well as by the new routes made possible by the canal.

3. Compare the causes of the War of 1812 with those of the War of 1917.

Important Dates:

1898. War with Spain and the annexation of Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Hawaii.
1899. The Hague Tribunal established.
1917. The United States enters the Great War.

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY OF AMERICAN POLITICAL HISTORY

1776. The English colonies declared their independence of Great Britain, and at the same time took steps to secure aid from France, and to form a permanent union.

1778. France formed an alliance with the united colonies, supplying them with money and assisting them further with her navy and army in the war against Great Britain for independence.

1781. The Continental Congress had drawn up a constitution, the Articles of Confederation, and submitted it to the thirteen states. They adopted the new government which joined them together as the United States with a Congress as the chief organ of government.

1783. Great Britain agreed to a treaty of peace with the United States and her ally, France, recognizing the independence of her former colonies and their union as the United States.

1783–89. Period of the Confederation. The United States included a total area of 892,135 square miles. About 3,250,000 people lived in the new republic. Of these only a few thousand lived west of the mountains. One-fifth of the people of the United States were negro slaves.

The states with western lands gave up most of them to the United States, to be used for the benefit of all the people. Congress adopted for these lands a system of surveying into townships, sections, and quarters, and began the practice of using a portion of the land for the support of education. In 1787, by the so-called "Ordinance of 1787," Congress adopted a form of government for its territories in the West, made promises about the admission of these into the Union, and other promises to the inhabitants about their rights.

In 1787 a convention at Philadelphia framed a new Constitution for the United States. This Constitution gave the United States more power and created three branches of government — a Congress, a President, and a Supreme Court — in place of the one-house Congress of the Articles of Confederation. Eleven states adopted this, and, although North Carolina and Rhode Island did not yet do so, abandoned the old constitution for the new one. The new government was organized in March and April, 1789.

1789–97. George Washington, First President. Under the new Constitution it was the duty of men called electors to choose the President and

Vice-President. In some states the people chose the electors, in others the state legislatures chose them. The first body of electors voted unanimously for General Washington of Virginia for President. They chose John Adams of Massachusetts Vice-President, though not by a unanimous vote. Ten amendments guarding the rights of the people and the states were adopted in December, 1791. In 1792 Washington was again chosen President and John Adams Vice-President. While Washington was President five states were admitted to the Union. These were North Carolina in 1789, Rhode Island in 1790, Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, and Tennessee in 1796, making at this time 16 states in the Republic. In 1790 the first census or count of the population was taken. It showed a total of almost 4,000,000 people in the United States. Of these about 110,000 lived west of the mountains. Out of every 100 inhabitants three lived in cities. It required the greater part of Washington's first term and much of his second to organize the new government and decide upon its policies. Two questions were the payment of state debts and the creation of a Bank of the United States. It was not long before his advisers and even the people as a whole were divided into two political parties over these questions. One party was called the Federalist and the other the Democratic or Republican party. Washington preferred the views of the Federalists. Hamilton and Adams were the real leaders of the Federalists. Jefferson and Madison were the leaders of the Republicans. Washington refused to be a candidate for a third term.

1797–1801. JOHN ADAMS. The electors were closely divided between the Federalist candidate, John Adams, and the Republican, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia. Adams had a majority of three votes. In those days the one receiving the next number became Vice-President. An eleventh amendment on the powers of the Supreme Court was adopted in 1798. The Federalists had trouble with France, and were obliged to prepare for war. This led them to pass laws for heavy taxes and other laws like the Alien and Sedition Acts. Both kinds of laws were unpopular with the majority of the people.

1801–09. THOMAS JEFFERSON. In the election in 1800 the Republican electors had a clear majority. It happened, however, that their two candidates, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia and Aaron Burr of New York, had the same number of votes. The House of Representatives had to decide the question which of them should be President. It chose Thomas Jefferson. Burr became Vice-President. After this experience a twelfth amendment was passed in 1804, changing the method of voting for President and Vice-President, so that the electors should vote separately for each. One new state, Ohio, was admitted in 1803. In the same year Jefferson purchased Louisiana for $15,000,000. As Louisiana had an area of 827,987 square miles, the cost was about three cents an acre. Jefferson was so popular that he obtained a great majority in the election in

1804. George Clinton of New York became Vice-President. Jefferson's last years as President were made unhappy by the troubles with England and France, and the necessity of taking measures to protect American rights and trade. Jefferson, like Washington, refused to be a candidate for a third term. He wished his Secretary of State, James Madison of Virginia, to succeed him as President, and such a wish counted with his Republican followers.

1809–17. James Madison. Madison became President in 1809. The Republicans were still in a great majority over the Federalists. George Clinton was reëlected Vice-President. The population of the country was increasing rapidly. In the census of 1800 it was 5,308,483. In the census of 1810 it was a third larger, or 7,239,881. Two years later, 1812, Louisiana was admitted as a state in the Union, making the eighteenth state.

In June, 1812, war was begun with England. An election occurred during the war. Madison was reëlected President. Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts was Vice-President. War measures formed the chief subject of laws until 1815. In 1816 a second Bank of the United States was chartered, and a new state, Indiana, taken into the Union. The Federalist party had nearly broken up, and in the election of this year was able to offer almost no opposition to the Republican candidate.

1817–25. James Monroe. Monroe had been Madison's Secretary of State, and had the President's support in the election. Monroe, too, was from Virginia. It looked as though Virginia had a monopoly in furnishing Presidents. The new Vice-President was Daniel D. Tompkins of New York. Beginning with the admission of Indiana, in 1816, one new state was added each year for six years until there were altogether twenty-four states. The new ones were Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, Alabama in 1819, Maine in 1820, and Missouri in 1821. First one from the South, and then one from the North, each time keeping the balance even. A great compromise upon slavery was made with the entrance of Maine and Missouri: this was that the remaining territory of the Louisiana Purchase should be divided; that the portion north of the line 36° 30′ was never to allow slavery, while that south might. Monroe was reëlected in 1820. His opponent received only one electoral vote. Tompkins was also again chosen Vice-President. In 1819 the United States purchased Florida — a territory of 72,101 square miles, but sparsely settled — from Spain for about $5,000,000. The census of 1820 showed that the population was 9,638,453, or about three times that of 1783. Now more than 2,250,000 people lived west of the Alleghany Mountains. The event of Monroe's administration most often remembered was the announcement in 1823 that the United States would oppose any effort of European countries either to establish any new colonies in North or South America or any interference with the freedom of the states already formed there. This was the Monroe Doctrine.

1825–29. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS. When the election of 1824 came on the Federalist party had almost entirely disappeared. The Republican party was divided into several factions, each supporting its favored leader. The vote for Andrew Jackson and John Quincy Adams was very close. Neither had a majority of all the votes cast for President. The House of Representatives for a second time decided the question, electing Adams. He was a son of the second President, and, like his father, was from Massachusetts. John C. Calhoun of South Carolina became Vice-President. Adams had been Monroe's Secretary of State. He was greatly interested in maintaining the Monroe Doctrine and promoting the building of roads and canals.

1829–37. ANDREW JACKSON. The friends of Andrew Jackson thought he had been cheated out of the Presidency in 1824, and bent every effort to secure his election in 1828. The Republicans gradually divided into two parties, the followers of Jackson and of Adams and Clay. Jackson was triumphant and Calhoun was again elected Vice-President. The followers of Jackson were coming to be known by their other name, Democrats, and began to drop the name Republicans. The followers of Adams took the name Whigs. In the election of 1832 the candidates for President were nominated, not as formerly by a caucus of the members of each party in Congress, but by a national convention of delegates from the states. Jackson was very popular with the people and was easily reëlected. Martin Van Buren of New York became Vice-President. The census of 1830 reported a population of 12,866,020. Two states, the 25th and the 26th, Arkansas in 1836 and Michigan in 1837, came in during Jackson's administration. Jackson wished his party to make the Vice-President his successor as President, and his will prevailed.

1837–41. MARTIN VAN BUREN. In 1836 the Democrats were again successful. Besides Van Buren as President, they chose Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky Vice-President. Van Buren's party was blamed for the panic of 1837, and so for the first time in over thirty years was defeated in the next election.

1841–45. WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON and JOHN TYLER. The Whig candidates in 1840 were William Henry Harrison of Ohio for President, and John Tyler of Virginia for Vice-President. The census gave a population of 17,069,453. Harrison died four weeks after he became President. Tyler at once became President, to serve out the term. Just before Tyler's term ended in 1845, it was decided to annex Texas. This was the addition of 389,166 square miles of territory. Florida, which was admitted about the same time, and Texas made twenty-eight states in the Union.

1845–49. JAMES K. POLK. The Whig triumph was of short duration. In 1845 the Democrats elected their candidate, James K. Polk of Tennessee President, and George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania Vice-President. The greater part of President Polk's single term as President was taken up with

the trouble with Mexico which ended in war. Iowa was admitted in 1846 and Wisconsin in 1848. These again made equal the number of states with slavery and those without slavery. By a treaty with Great Britain in 1846 the United States retained part of the Oregon Country, 286,541 square miles. At the end of the Mexican War 529,189 square miles more territory were acquired. This included California and the territory from which Arizona, Nevada, Utah, and part of Colorado and New Mexico have been formed. In the treaty which ended the war and provided for the annexation of the southwestern region, the United States paid Mexico a little over $15,000,000.

1849–50. Zachary Taylor. The Whigs were successful in the election of 1848. They had named as their candidate one who had become a hero in the Mexican War, General Zachary Taylor of Louisiana. Millard Fillmore of New York was their candidate for Vice-President. President Taylor died in 1850, a year and four months after his term began. The Vice-President for the second time in American history became President by the death of the President.

1850–53. Millard Fillmore. In 1850 there were 23,191,876 people in the United States. The year 1850 was more important for the compromise made by Congress over the slavery question. The aim of one part of the Compromise was to please the North by the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia, and another part to please the South by securing the return of fugitive slaves. By another part the territory lying between Texas and California was to have slavery or not, as the inhabitants should decide. By still another part California was admitted into the Union without slavery. Wisconsin had been admitted in 1848. There were now thirty-one states. Those without slavery outnumbered those with it. In 1853 the United States purchased a tract of territory, 29,670 square miles, from Mexico, in order to round out the southern boundary. Mexico received $10,000,000.

1853–57. Franklin Pierce. The Democrats regained power in the election of 1852. Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire became President, and William R. King of Alabama Vice-President. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise in 1854 and the application of the rule that Kansas and Nebraska, like the Southwest, might have slaves if the inhabitants wished and so voted, led to the formation of a new political party. This party, the Republican, was bent on keeping the territories for free laborers rather than slaves. The Whig party, like the Federalist, gradually broke up; its members went over to one of the other parties, chiefly to the Republicans. This made it easy for the Democrats again to win in the election of 1856, in spite of the unpopularity in the North of the Kansas and Nebraska Act.

1857–61. James Buchanan. The Democratic victor in the election of 1856 was James Buchanan of Pennsylvania. The new Vice-President was

John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky. Buchanan's term was taken up chiefly with the great dispute over slavery. One event after another arrayed the North and South against each other. The Dred Scott decision in 1857 and the John Brown Raid in 1859 were the most serious events in the growth of the trouble. In 1858 Minnesota was admitted, and the following year Oregon made the thirty-third state. The count of population just before the Civil War showed a total of 31,443,321. This was almost exactly ten times the number in 1783. Of the total population the slave-holding states had 12,240,000 people; 3,950,000 of these were slaves. The North had 19,201,546. The area of the fifteen slave-holding states was 882,245 and of the free states 824,622 square miles The greater part of the territories, however, could be counted as sure to become free states, and this made the area of the region opposed to slavery about double the area of that favorable to it.

1861–65. Abraham Lincoln. The new, or Republican, party won in the election of 1860, chiefly because the Democratic party was hopelessly divided over the slavery question. The Republican candidate for President was Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, and for Vice-President Hannibal Hamlin of Maine. Just before Lincoln became President seven southern states seceded. Soon afterward four more united in a Southern Confederacy. Almost the entire period of Lincoln's Presidency was occupied with the Civil War. Three new states were formed during the War. These were Kansas in 1861, West Virginia in 1863 (from the western part of Virginia), and Nevada in 1864. Lincoln was reëlected for a second term in 1864. Andrew Johnson of Tennessee was at this time chosen Vice-President. One month and ten days after Lincoln began his second term he was assassinated, and Andrew Johnson became President.

1865–69. Andrew Johnson. The new President and Congress quarreled over the manner of reorganizing the states which had seceded and of settling the questions which had arisen as a result of the war. Two amendments were quickly added to the Constitution. The 13th amendment in 1865 forbade slavery within the United States. The 14th amendment in 1868 was intended, among other things, to prevent the states from abridging the rights of citizens whether white or black. In the same year Congress impeached President Johnson and so attempted to remove him from office. Nebraska joined the Union in 1867, and Alaska was purchased from Russia. The purchase of Alaska cost $7,200,000, and added 590,884 square miles of territory to the United States.

1869–77. Ulysses S. Grant of Illinois became President in 1869, and Schuyler Colfax of Indiana Vice-President. They were elected by the Republicans. In 1870 the 15th amendment became a part of the Constitution. By this the states were forbidden to restrict the right to vote on the ground of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. The United States now had a population of 38,558,371. Grant was reëlected in 1872,

with Henry Wilson of Massachusetts Vice-President. Colorado was admitted in 1876. Congress throughout Grant's two terms was still much occupied with the questions which had grown out of the Civil War — reconstruction in the South and management of the national debt.

1877–81. RUTHERFORD B. HAYES. In the election of 1876 the Republicans put forward as candidates Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio for President, and William A. Wheeler of New York for Vice-President. The Republican candidates had only one electoral vote more than their opponents. In reality Samuel J. Tilden of New York and T. A. Hendricks of Indiana the Democratic candidates, had more votes of the people, and would have won if the people voted directly for President. The census of 1880 gave the population of the United States as 50,155,783.

1881–85. JAMES A. GARFIELD and CHESTER A. ARTHUR. In 1880 the Republicans had a larger vote than in 1876, though the contest between them and the Democrats was still close. James A. Garfield of Ohio and Chester A. Arthur of New York became President and Vice-President respectively. Garfield was shot by an assassin, July 2, 1881; he died September 19; and Arthur became President. One landmark in legislation of the period was the Act of 1883 requiring examination for many federal appointments. This was the Civil Service Reform Act.

1885–89. GROVER CLEVELAND. For the first time since the Civil War the Democratic party won in the election of 1884. Grover Cleveland of New York became President the next year, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana Vice-President. In 1887 Congress passed the Interstate Commerce Act for the regulation chiefly of railroad rates on commerce going from state to state.

1889–93. BENJAMIN HARRISON. The Democrats remained in power only one term. The Republican candidates in the election of 1888 were successful. They were Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, President, and Levi P. Morton of New York, Vice-President. In this case, as in that of Hayes, the majority of the electors voted for Harrison, but the majority of the people voted for his opponent, Grover Cleveland. The principal laws of the time were about the larger use of silver as money and about the tariff. Several new states were formed from the western territory — chiefly from the old Louisiana territory — North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington in 1889, and Idaho and Wyoming in 1890. The number brought the United States up to a total of forty-four states, where it remained until 1896. The total population in the census of 1890 was 62,947,714.

1893–97. GROVER CLEVELAND. After four years out of the Presidency, Grover Cleveland returned as a result of the election in 1892. The Democratic party had again won. The new Vice-President was Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois. One new state, Utah, was admitted in 1896 while Cleveland was President.

1897–1901. WILLIAM MCKINLEY. In the election of 1896 it was the turn of the Republicans to win. Their candidates, William McKinley of Ohio and Garret A. Hobart of New Jersey, became President and Vice-President. In 1898 the United States was at war with Spain. During the war the Hawaiian Islands were annexed. They have an area, altogether, of 6,449 square miles. At the end of the war, by the treaty with Spain, Guam, Porto Rico, and the Philippines were acquired. Guam has an area of 210 square miles, Porto Rico of 3,435 square miles, and the Philippines 115,026 square miles. The United States paid Spain $20,000,000, but this amount in no sense represents the cost of the new possessions. The war with Spain cost the United States many times $20,000,000. In 1899 the Samoan Islands were divided between the United States and Germany. The United States was given six islands with an area of seventy-seven square miles. In the census of 1900 the United States was found to have a population of 75,994,575, not counting the island inhabitants. President McKinley was reëlected in 1900. Theodore Roosevelt of New York became Vice-President. Six months after McKinley's second term began he was assassinated, and Roosevelt became President, to finish the term of three years and six months.

1901–09. THEODORE ROOSEVELT. Theodore Roosevelt completed McKinley's term, and in 1904 was elected President. Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana was chosen Vice-President. The arrangement with Great Britain and Panama by which the United States acquired control of a zone ten miles wide across the Isthmus of Panama and the power to build a canal, was one of the most important events of the time. In 1902 the government began the work of irrigating parts of the deserts of the West. The passage of laws (1) to protect the people against impure foods, (2) to obtain more thorough railway rate regulation, and (3) to protect the nation's forests and streams from ruin, made the period an epoch in American history. In 1907 Oklahoma became a state in the United States.

1909–13. WILLIAM H. TAFT. In 1908 William H. Taft of Ohio, a Republican, was chosen President, and James S. Sherman of New York Vice-President. President Taft extended the plan of merit tests for many clerks and assistant postmasters in government service. The Republican party was, however, so divided on the great questions of the day, tariff reform and caring for the country's natural resources, that few important laws were passed. Congress and the President, however, did agree on two memorable laws. By one in 1911 a postal savings system was established; by another in 1913 the post office was also authorized to carry parcels of a moderate weight. In 1912 two states, formed from the territory obtained from Mexico in 1848, were admitted. These, New Mexico and Arizona, brought the total number of states to forty-eight. The population by the census of 1910 was 91,972,266, not including the island possessions. The area in square miles is about 3,617,673.

1913– . Woodrow Wilson. In the election of 1912 the Republican party was divided. The Convention renominated President Taft. Many Republican delegates joined with others in a Progressive party, which tried to elect former President Roosevelt. Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, whom the Democrats nominated for President, was chosen, with Thomas R. Marshall of Indiana for Vice-President. Just before Taft's term expired the announcement was made that a 16th amendment had become law. This gave Congress power to tax incomes. A few weeks after the inauguration of President Wilson a 17th amendment was added to the Constitution. It changed the method of electing the Senators of the United States, who had hitherto been selected by the state legislatures. Under the new plan the people vote directly for them as they do for the members of the House of Representatives. President Wilson's first work was an attempt to carry out his party's pledges. The most famous law for this purpose was a new tariff act which reduced the taxes on imports. In 1914 a Federal Reserve Bank system was established and steps taken to build a government railroad in Alaska. Within the same year the Panama Canal was practically completed. This was the year when a Great War began in Europe. The establishment of the Federal Farm Loan Banks and the re-election of President Wilson in 1916, the order of the President for the choice of postmasters for merit rather than for political services, and the entry of the United States into the European War because German submarines destroyed American merchant ships are events also to be remembered.

POPULATION

Population at the Beginning of the Period of Independence

Entire United States

1776	2,750,000	1790	3,929,214
1783	3,250,000		

Population by States from First Census — 1790

Connecticut	237,946	New York	340,120
Delaware	59,096	North Carolina	393,751
Georgia	82,548	Pennsylvania	434,373
Kentucky[1]	73,677	Rhode Island	68,825
Maryland	319,728	South Carolina	249,073
Massachusetts	378,787	Tennessee[1]	35,691
Maine[1]	96,540	Vermont[1]	85,425
New Hampshire	141,885	Virginia	747,610
New Jersey	184,139		

Area and Population of the States and Territories of the United States 1910

States	*Area in square miles*	*Population in* 1910
Alabama	51,998	2,138,093
Arizona	113,956	204,354
Arkansas	53,335	1,574,449
California	158,297	2,377,549
Colorado	103,948	799,024
Connecticut	4,965	1,114,756
Delaware	2,370	202,322
Florida	58,666	752,619
Georgia	59,265	2,609,121
Idaho	83,888	325,594
Illinois	56,665	5,638,591
Indiana	36,354	2,700,876
Iowa	56,147	2,224,771
Kansas	82,158	1,690,949
Kentucky	40,598	2,289,905
Louisiana	48,506	1,656,388
Maine	33,040	742,371

[1] In 1790 these were only territories.

States	*Area in square miles*	*Population in* 1910
Maryland	12,327	1,295,346
Massachusetts	8,266	3,366,416
Michigan	57,980	2,810,173
Minnesota	84,682	2,075,708
Mississippi	46,865	1,797,114
Missouri	69,420	3,293,335
Montana	146,997	376,053
Nebraska	77,520	1,192,214
Nevada	110,690	81,875
New Hampshire	9,341	430,572
New Jersey	8,224	2,537,167
New Mexico	122,634	327,301
New York	49,204	9,113,614
North Carolina	52,426	2,206,287
North Dakota	70,837	577,056
Ohio	41,040	4,767,121
Oklahoma	70,057	1,657,155
Oregon	96,699	672,765
Pennsylvania	45,126	7,665,111
Rhode Island	1,248	542,610
South Carolina	30,989	1,515,400
South Dakota	77,615	583,888
Tennessee	42,022	2,184,789
Texas	265,896	3,896,542
Utah	84,990	373,351
Vermont	9,564	355,956
Virginia	42,627	2,061,612
Washington	69,127	1,141,990
West Virginia	24,170	1,221,119
Wisconsin	56,066	2,333,860
Wyoming	97,914	145,965

Territories	*Area in square miles*	*Population in* 1910
Alaska	590,884	64,356
District of Columbia	70	331,069
Guam	210 (Estimated)	9,000
Hawaii	6,449	191,909
Panama Canal Zone	436 (Estimated)	50,000
Philippine Islands	115,026 (Census of 1903)	7,635,426
Porto Rico	3,435	1,118,012
Samoa	77 (Estimated)	6,100
Total of United States and its possessions	3,743,306	101,100,000

Population of the United States by Races
Census of 1910

White	81,731,957	Chinese	71,531
Negro	9,827,763	Japanese	72,157
Indian	265,683	All other	3,175

Total population, not including island possessions 91,972,266

Place of Birth of Present Population
Census of 1910

Born in the		*Born in*	
United States	78,456,380	Ireland	1,352,251
Foreign Countries	13,515,886	Italy	1,343,125
Austria [1]	1,174,973	Japan	67,744
Belgium	49,400	Mexico	221,915
Canada — French	385,083	Netherlands	120,063
Canada — Other	819,554	Norway	403,877
China	56,756	Portugal	59,360
Cuba and other West Indies	47,635	Russia and Finland [1]	1,732,462
Denmark	181,649	Scotland	261,076
England	877,719	Spain	22,108
France	117,418	Sweden	665,207
Germany [1]	2,501,333	Switzerland	124,848
Greece	101,282	Turkey	91,959
Hungary	495,609	Wales	82,488
		All other countries	158,992

Cities of the United States with Population over 200,000
Census of 1910

City	*Population*	*Number over* 10 *years unable to read and write*	*Average number in the hundred of population unable to read and write*
Baltimore	558,485	20,325	4.4
Boston	670,585	24,468	4.4
Buffalo	423,715	12,745	3.7
Chicago	2,185,283	79,911	4.5
Cincinnati	363,591	9,576	3.1
Cleveland	560,663	20,676	4.6
Denver	213,381	3,841	2.1
Detroit	465,766	18,731	5.
Indianapolis	233,650	5,874	3.

[1] Poland counted under Austria, Germany, and Russia.

City	*Population*	*Number over 10 years unable to read and write*	*Average number in the hundred of population unable to read and write*
Jersey City	267,779	11,797	5.6
Kansas City	248,381	4,937	2.3
Los Angeles	319,198	5,258	1.9
Louisville	223,928	9,886	5.3
Milwaukee	373,857	10,765	3.6
Minneapolis	301,408	6,139	2.4
New Orleans	339,075	18,987	6.9
New York	4,766,883	254,208	6.7
Newark	347,469	16,553	6.
Philadelphia	1,549,008	57,700	4.6
Pittsburgh	533,905	26,627	6.2
Portland	207,214	2,145	1.2
Providence	224,326	14,236	7.7
Rochester	218,149	6,916	3.8
St. Louis	687,029	21,123	3.7
St. Paul	214,744	3,751	2.1
San Francisco	416,912	7,697	2.1
Seattle	237,194	2,217	1.1
Washington	331,069	13,812	4.9

POPULATION OF COUNTRIES OF EUROPE (Not including island colonies)

Countries	*Area in square miles*	*Population*
Austria-Hungary	261,035	49,418,596
Belgium	11,373	7,074,910
Denmark	15,388	2,585,660
England and Wales	58,575	36,075,269
France	207,054	38,961,945
Germany	208,830	64,903,423
Ireland	32,373	4,381,951
Italy	110,550	32,475,253
Netherlands	12,648	5,898,429
Portugal	35,490	5,423,132
Russia (including Asiatic Russia)	8,647,657	160,095,200
Scotland	30,443	4,759,521
Spain	194,783	19,503,008
Sweden	172,876	5,476,441
Switzerland	15,976	3,741,971

Progress of Education

Number in every 1000 *of population of principal countries over* 12 *years unable to read and write*

Country	1840	1890	1900
Austria	790	450	310
Belgium	550	200	120
France	530	150	50
Germany	180	40	10
Great Britain	410	100	60
Italy	840	530	440
Netherlands	300	140	100
Russia (in Europe)	980	850	780
Sweden	200	30	10
Switzerland	200	50	10
United States	200	130	100[1]

Waste of Wealth in the United States[2]

Waste in mining, preparation of minerals, and in their use	$1,500,000,000 per day
Forest fires destroy	50,000,000 of timber yearly
Fires destroy	450,000,000 of property yearly
Floods sweep away	500,000,000 of valuable top soil
Sickness and death cost	3,000,000,000 yearly

[1] In 1910 this was 77.

[2] This amount includes not only direct waste, — for example, through careless mining, loss of by-products, or throwing away scrap-iron — but also indirect waste, like using poorly constructed stoves and furnaces, and stoking fires improperly. For a discussion of all the items in the table, see E. L. Bogart, *Economic History of the United States*.

TABLE SHOWING INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES[1]

	1800	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850
Population	5,300,000	7,200,000	9,600,000	12,800,000	17,000,000	23,100,000
Public debt	$82,900,000	$53,100,000	$91,000,000	$48,500,000	$3,500,000	$63,400,000
Value of farm products	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate
Value of manufactured products	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	$1,019,100,000
Value of imports	$91,200,000	$85,400,000	$74,400,000	$62,700,000	$98,200,000	$173,500,000
Value of exports	$70,900,000	$66,700,000	$69,600,000	$71,600,000	$123,600,000	$144,300,000
Tons of coal produced	Very few	Very few	3,000	285,000	1,800,000	6,200,000
Gallons of petroleum	None	None	None	None	Very few	Very few
Tons of steel	Very few	Very few	Very few	Very few	No estimate	No estimate
Pounds of wool	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	35,800,000	52,500,000
Bushels of wheat	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	84,800,000	100,040,000
Bushels of corn	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	377,500,000	592,000,000
Bales of cotton	155,000	340,000	600,000	900,000	2,100,000	2,300,000
Tons of sugar consumed	No estimate	No estimate	No estimate	69,000	100,000	200,000
Miles of railroads	None	None	None	23	2,818	9,000

1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910
31,400,000	38,500,000	50,100,000	62,900,000	75,900,000	91,900,000
$64,600,000	$2,046,400,000	$1,723,900,000	$725,300,000	$1,023,400,000	$913,300,000
No estimate	$1,958,000,000	$2,212,500,000	$2,460,100,000	$3,764,100,000	$8,900,000,000
$1,885,800,000	$4,232,300,000	$5,369,500,000	$9,372,400,000	$13,014,200,000	$20,600,000,000
$353,600,000	$435,900,000	$667,900,000	$789,300,000	$849,900,000	$1,556,900,000
$333,500,000	$392,700,000	$835,600,000	$857,800,000	$1,394,400,000	$1,744,900,000
13,000,000	29,400,000	63,800,000	140,800,000	240,700,000	411,400,000 (1909)
21,000,000	220,900,000	1,104,000,000	1,924,500,000	2,672,000,000	7,649,600,000 (1909)
No estimate	68,000	1,200,000	4,200,000	10,100,000	23,955,021 (1909)
60,200,000	162,000,000	232,500,000	276,000,000	288,600,000	321,300,000
173,100,000	235,800,000	498,500,000	399,200,000	522,200,000	695,400,000
838,700,000	1,094,200,000	1,717,400,000	1,489,900,000	2,105,100,000	3,125,700,000
4,800,000	3,100,000	5,700,000	7,300,000	9,400,000	11,900,000
400,000	600,000	900,000	1,400,000	2,200,000	3,600,000
30,000	52,000	93,000	166,000	194,000	244,084 (1909

[1] Numbers less than 100,000 not counted.

REFERENCES FOR TEACHERS

Shorter Histories of the United States

(1) Elson, H. W., History of the United States. (2) Epochs of American History — (*a*) Thwaites, R. G., The Colonies, 1492–1750, (*b*) Hart, A. B., Formation of the Union, 1750–1829, (*c*) Wilson, W., Division and Reunion, 1829–1909. (3) Home University Library Series — (*a*) Andrews, C. M., The Colonial Period, (*b*) Paxson, F. L., The Civil War, (*c*) Haworth, P. L., Reconstruction and Reunion — (other volumes for the intervening periods will follow). (4) Sparks, E. E., United States of America, 2 vols., emphasis on social and economic side. (5) Wilson, Woodrow, History of the American People (published in 5 vols.).

Longer Histories

Channing, Edward, History of the United States (3 vols., covering the history to 1789).

McMaster, History of the People of the United States (8 vols., covering the years 1781 to 1861).

Rhodes, J. F., History of the United States (1850 to 1877).

None of the longer histories covers the entire history of the United States. The author of the first plans to continue his work to the present time, in 8 vols.; the third to continue his through the period since 1876.

The American Nation, edited by A. B. Hart, 27 vols.; the most careful complete history. Each volume treats fully a short period.

Fiske, John, historical works: (*a*) The Discovery of America, 2 vols., (*b*) The Beginnings of New England, (*c*) Old Virginia and her Neighbors, 2 vols., (*d*) The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America, 2 vols., (*e*) The American Revolution, 2 vols., (*f*) The Critical Period, 1783–1789, (*g*) New France and New England. These are remarkably entertaining and usually trustworthy histories. They deal only with the Colonial and Revolutionary Periods of American History.

Parkman, Francis, historical works. (*a*) Pioneers of France in the New World, (*b*) The Jesuits in North America, (*c*) La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West, (*d*) The Old Regime in Canada, (*e*) Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV, (*f*) A Half-Century of Conflict, 2 vols., (*g*) Montcalm and Wolfe, 2 vols., (*h*) The Conspiracy of Pontiac, 2 vols. A great historical series, devoted chiefly to the French in America.

A useful book of selections from Parkman, entitled Francis Parkman, The Struggle for a Continent, has been made by Pelham Edgar.

Lummis, C. F., Spanish Pioneers. A short history of the Spanish exploration and colonization in the New World, which treats a subject neglected by the other histories.

Coman, Katherine, Economic Beginnings of the West, 2 vols.; (excellent for the early history of the region west of the Mississippi).

Special Reading List

A brief list of special readings for each chapter is given. The books selected are all adapted to use in the seventh and eighth grades. It is believed that the teacher may wish to suggest some of them to ambitious students for home reading, and sometimes use them for classroom reading or as the basis for classroom stories. The list might be greatly extended. A Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries by Andrews,

Gambrill and Tall (Longmans, 1911), gives many more references and further information about those included in this list.

Chapter I. Discoverers and Explorers

Sources. — American History Leaflets, Edward Channing and A. B. Hart, editors. No. 1, Account by Columbus of his discovery. No. 13, Coronado's Expedition.

Hart, A. B., Source Readers, No. 1, p. 4 (Columbus's account of his discovery); p. 10 (Balboa's discovery of the Pacific Ocean); p. 12 (Pizarro's conquest of Peru); p. 16 (De Soto's Expedition); p. 167 (How Raleigh's colony was lost).

Hart, Source Book, No. 1, p. 1 (A letter by Columbus describing his discovery); No. 3, p. 6 (Coronado's letter describing to the king his explorations).

Old South Leaflets, No. 29, An account of the discovery of America written by the son of Columbus; No. 32, Marco Polo's account of Japan and Java; No. 33, Columbus's letter describing his voyage; No. 35, Cortés's account of the City of Mexico; No. 36, The Death of De Soto according to one of his companions; No. 89, Founding of St. Augustine; No. 102, Columbus's description of Cuba; No. 119, Raleigh's First Roanoke colony.

Histories: Johnson, W. H., The World's Discoverers. Describes especially the search for the western route to the Indies.

Johnson, W. H., Pioneer Spaniards in North America.

King, Grace, De Soto and his Men in the Land of Florida.

Lawler, T. B., The Story of Columbus and Magellan, pp. 1–13 (The Portuguese explorers); pp. 14–65 (Columbus); pp. 94–144 (Magellan).

Lummis, C. F., Spanish Pioneers (especially the chapters on Columbus, Making Geography, and Girdle round the World).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers on Land and Sea, pp. 47–67 (Raleigh); 122–160 (Columbus); 161–186 (Magellan), 186–222 (Cortés).

Ober, F. A., Heroes of American History, 7 vols., (*a*) Columbus, the Discoverer, (*b*) Hernando Cortés, Conqueror of Mexico, (*c*) Pizarro and the Conquest of Peru, (*d*) Ferdinand de Soto and the Invasion of Florida, (*e*) Vasco Nuñez Balboa, (*f*) Ferdinand Magellan, (*g*) Amerigo Vespucci, (*h*) Juan Ponce de Leon, John and Sebastian Cabot, and Sir Walter Raleigh.

Winterburn, Rosa V., The Spanish in the Southwest (The stories of Cortés, Coronado, and the Seven Cities of Cibola).

Chapter II. Gaining a Foothold on the Atlantic Shore

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, p. 25 (Description of a sea voyage to America, 1629). Hart, Source Book, No. 5, p. 11 (Captain Newport's explorations up the James River, 1607).

Old South Leaflets, No. 91, The Founding of Quebec, 1608; No. 94, The Discovery of the Hudson River.

Histories. — Johnson, W. H., Pioneers of France in North America (Champlain).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers on Land and Sea, pp. 1–34 (Champlain), pp. 35–46 (Hudson).

Sedgwick, H. D., Samuel de Champlain.

Chapter III. Exploring the Mississippi Valley

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, pp. 55, 91, 95 (How the Indians lived); No. 2, pp. 85–89 (How the Indians build birch-bark canoes).

Hart, Source Book, No. 6, p. 14 (Champlain's account of his expedition against the Iroquois), No. 9, p. 23 (Indian life), No. 36, p. 96 (Description of La Salle's expedition written by one of his companions).

McKinley's Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 9 (Description of La Salle's expedition written by one of his companions).

Old South Leaflets, No. 87, Manners and Customs of the Indians; No. 46, Father Marquette at Chicago.

Histories. — Baldwin, James, The Discovery of the Old Northwest (especially for stories of Joliet, Marquette, La Salle, the work of the Jesuit fathers, and the life of the *voyageurs* and *coureurs de bois*).

Catherwood, Mary H., Heroes of the Middle West.

Hazard, Blanche E., and Dutton, S. T., Indians and Pioneers, pp. 36–88 (How the Indians lived).

Johnson, W. H., French Pathfinders in North America.

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley, pp. 1–15 (Marquette), pp. 16–53 (La Salle).

Starr, Frederick, American Indians.

Thwaites, R. G., Father Marquette; also same author's Badger State, 24–69 (French pioneers in Wisconsin).

Chapter IV. The Founding of Virginia

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, pp. 98–104 (Pocahontas and her people).

Hart, Source Book, No. 10, p. 26 (The requirements of an emigrant to Virginia in 1634); No. 13, p. 33 (Captain John Smith's account of settlement of Virginia).

American History Leaflets, Channing and Hart, editors, No. 27 (Captain John Smith's account of the settlement of Virginia).

McKinley, Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 6 (An account of the first representative assembly in America).

Old South Leaflets, No. 167, Captain John Smith's account of the settlement of Virginia.

Histories. — Chandler, J. A. C., Makers of Virginia.

Cooke, J. E., Stories of the Old Dominion.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 21–60.

Johnson, Eleanor H., Boys' Life of Captain John Smith.

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 1–39 (Imaginary letters to describe life in early Virginia).

Chapter V. Exiles for Conscience Sake at Plymouth

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, pp. 133–136 (Bradford's account of the settlement of Plymouth).

Hart, Source Book, p. 39, No. 15 (Bradford's account of the settlement of Plymouth).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. i, No. 101, p. 356 (Governor Winslow's account of an early Thanksgiving); Nos. 99 and 100, pp. 345 and 349 (Bradford's The First Landing and Life in a Pilgrim Colony).

Channing and Hart, American History Leaflets, No. 29 (Bradford's account of the settlement of Plymouth).

New York Historical Society, Collections, Second Series, vol. ii, p. 351 (A very interesting description of Plymouth in 1627).

Old South Leaflets, No. 121, Captain John Smith's Description of New England; No. 153, Bradford's account of the Voyage of the *Mayflower*.

Histories. — Brooks, E. S., Stories of the Old Bay State.

Drake, S. A., Making of New England.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 61–72 (Founding Plymouth).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers on Land and Sea, pp. 108–121 (Captain John Smith's description of New England).

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 85–127 (Imaginary letters describing early life at Plymouth).

Tiffany, Nina Moore, Pilgrims and Puritans.

Longfellow's Courtship of Miles Standish and Webster's Plymouth Oration.

Chapter VI. The Beginnings of New England

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, p. 136 (An account of the settlement of Boston).

Hart, Source Book, No. 17, p. 45 (A description of the settlement of the towns on Massachusetts Bay); No. 28, p. 74 (Winthrop's Account of Founding New England); No. 29, p. 77 (Description of a Puritan Church service).

Histories. — Brooks, E. S., Stories of the Old Bay State.

Burton, Alma H., The Story of the Indians of New England.

Drake, S. A., The Making of New England.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 73–81 (Founding the Massachusetts towns); 89–95 (Migration from Massachusetts to Connecticut and Rhode Island); pp. 96–100 (The Confederation of New England).

Fassett, James H., Colonial Life in New Hampshire.

Hawthorne, Grandfather's Chair, pp. 5–14 (A story of life during the settlement of the Massachusetts Bay towns); pp. 15–23 (Roger Williams and other emigrants from Massachusetts).

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 156–188 (Imaginary letters describing early life in New England).

Tiffany, Nina Moore, Pilgrims and Puritans.

Chapter VII. Maryland, A Refuge for English Catholics

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, p. 143 (Father White's account of the settlement of Maryland).

Hart, Source Book, No. 18, p. 48 (A description of Maryland in 1679 by a traveler).

Old South Leaflets, No. 170, Story of Maryland as told by the Colonists.

Histories. — Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 106–111 (Early Maryland).

Gambrill, J. M., Leading Events of Maryland History.

Passano, L. M., Maryland: Stories of Her People and Her History.

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 128–155 (Imaginary Letters describing life in Maryland.)

Chapter VIII. Dutch and English Rivalries. Beginning of a Great State

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, p. 42, No. 16 (A description of the settlement of New Amsterdam); No. 22, p. 58 (New York in 1678); No. 32, p. 85 (Life in a Dutch town, 1647–58).

McKinley's Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 8 (A description of New York in 1670 and how to settle there).

Old South Leaflets, No. 69, A Description of New Netherland in 1655.

Histories. — Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 101–105 (Conquest of New Netherland by the English).

Redway, J. W., The Making of the Empire State (New York).

Southworth, Gertrude V. D., The Story of the Empire State.

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 188–232 (Imaginary letters describing life in New Netherland).

Chapter IX. The Second Great Emigration

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, pp. 144–148 (A description of Pennsylvania in 1698); No. 2, pp. 1–3 (Letter from an early Quaker colonist).

Hart, Source Book, No. 23, p. 62, (A proprietor's offers for colonists in New Jersey); No. 25, p. 67 (Pennsylvania in 1697).

Old South Leaflets, No. 95, A Description of Pennsylvania in 1700; No. 171, Penn's Description of Pennsylvania, 1683.

Sharpless, Isaac, A Quaker Experiment in Government, pp. 84–86 (A very interesting letter from a little girl describing life in Pennsylvania in 1685).

Histories. — Alderman, Edwin A., A Brief History of North Carolina.

Chandler, J. A. C., Makers of Virginia History (Virginia during the Commonwealth period, 1649–1660).

Cooke, J. E., Stories of the Old Dominion.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 115–138 (Peopling Carolina, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania).

Hodges, George, William Penn (In Riverside Biographical Series).

McCorkle, Lutie A., Old Time Stories of the Old North State (North Carolina).

Means, Selina E., Palmetto Stories (South Carolina).

Ober, Frederick A., The Storied West Indies (Buccaneers and Treasure Seekers).

Stockton, Frank R., Stories of New Jersey.

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 233–88 (Imaginary letters describing early life in New Jersey and Pennsylvania).

Thomas, A. C., A History of Pennsylvania.

Walton, J. S., and Brumbaugh, M. G., Stories of Pennsylvania.

White, H. A., The Making of South Carolina.

Chapter X. The French Rivals

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 2, pp. 122–124 (Founding New Orleans).

Hart, Source Book, No. 37, p. 98 (The destruction of Deerfield, 1704); No. 38, p. 100 (The French fur trade with the Indians).

Histories. — Baldwin, James, The Discovery of the Old Northwest, pp. 237–250 (French settlements; A day in a French village).

Bourinot, J. G., The Story of Canada.

Colby, C. W., Canadian Types of the Old Regime.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 160–170 (The French in America).

Magruder, Harriet, A History of Louisiania.

Tappan, Eva March, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 40–84 (Imaginary letters describing life in early history of Canada).

Thwaites, R. G., Stories of the Badger State, pp. 70–91 (French days in Wisconsin)

Chapter XI. The Making of New Frontiers

Sources. — Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. ii, No. 29, pp. 77 (The story of the "Poor Palatines" in New York); No. 40, p. 114 (Germans in Georgia).

Hanna, C. A., The Scotch-Irish, vol. ii, pp. 26–28, 64–67 (Letters from Scotch-Irish colonists).

Histories. — Chapelle, J. H., Georgia History Stories.

Eggleston, Edward, Life in the Eighteenth Century, pp. 32–39 (Founding Georgia).

Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia.

Massey, Katherine B., and Wood, Laura G. The Story of Georgia.

Tappan, Letters from Colonial Children, pp. 289–319 (Imaginary letters describing life in early Georgia).

Walton and Brumbaugh, Stories of Pennsylvania, pp. 45–47 (Germans in Pennsylvania).

Chapter XII. How the Colonists Lived

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 1, p. 67 (Traveling in colonial days); pp. 149–152 (Plantation life in Virginia); pp. 152–155 (Puritan amusements); pp. 157–159 (Slavery in the colonies); pp. 192–6 (Life of young people in New Hampshire); pp. 201–33 (Colonial schools). No. 2, pp. 32–4 (A witchcraft trial, 1730); pp. 52–6 (Colonial newspaper advertisements); pp. 59–61 (Life in Boston, 1750).

Hart, Source Book, No. 31, p. 82 (A witch trial, 1692); p. 91, No. 34 (Plantation life in Virginia, 1648); No. 44, p. 115 (Social life in Philadelphia, 1744); No. 45, p. 117 (A description of New York, 1748).

McKinley's Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 10 (Some famous English laws affecting trade and industry in the colonies).

Histories. — Earle, Alice Morse, Child Life in Colonial Days. Also, same author's Home Life in Colonial Days, Costume in Colonial Times, and Diary of Anna Green Winslow, a Boston School Girl in 1771.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 180–186 (Early colonial industry); pp. 187–191 (Early colonial manufactures); pp. 192–203 (Education, religion, and marriages); pp. 204–218 (Life in the early colonies); pp. 219–228 (White and black slavery); pp. 229–238 (Dress, sports, and Sunday customs); pp. 239–242 (Superstitions and witchcraft); pp. 243–253 (Commerce, trade, and piracy).

Eggleston, Edward, Life in the Eighteenth Century, pp. 39–51 (Life in Georgia and the Carolinas); pp. 209–243 (Education and customs).

Fassett, J. H., Colonial Life in New Hampshire.

Hawthorne, Grandfather's Chair, pp. 74–79 (The Salem witches); pp. 80–85 (The old-fashioned school).

Jenks, Tudor, When America was New.

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, Chapters 4–5 (Life in the English colonies).

Stone G. L., and Fickett, M. G., Everyday Life in the Colonies.

Chapter XIII. How the Colonies were Governed

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, No. 50, p. 128 (A description of the colonial government of New York, 1748); No. 52, p. 132 (An account of a town-meeting in Boston, 1729).

McKinley's Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 12 (Many examples of colonial methods of punishment).

Histories. — Earle, Alice Morse, Curious Punishments of Bygone Days.

Eggleston, Edward, Our First Century, pp. 139–159 (Early rebellion for the right).

Chapter XIV. Conquest of the French Colonies in America

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 2, pp. 94–100 (Pontiac's attempt to capture Detroit); pp. 138–141 (Braddock's defeat); pp. 146–150 (The capture of Quebec).

Hart, Source Book, No. 39, p. 103 (Washington's letter to his mother describing Braddock's defeat); No. 40, p. 105 (The capture of Quebec).

Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A., Readings in Modern European History, I, No. 62, A French account of Braddock's defeat; No. 64, Quebec.

McKinley's Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 11 (Washington's journey to the French forts, 1753–1754, from his journal).

Histories. — Baldwin, James, The Conquest of the Old Northwest, pp. 11–144.

Cooke, J. E., Stories of the Old Dominion, pp. 94–123 (Washington, the surveyor); pp. 122–139 (Braddock's defeat).

Dickson, Marguerite, A Hundred Years of Warfare, 1680–1789.

Drake, S. A., Border Wars of New England (For accounts of the wars of King William and Queen Anne in the colonies).

Jenks, Tudor, When America Won Liberty.

Longfellow's Evangeline (The Acadians), and Hawthorne's Grandfather's Chair, pp. 118–136 (The Acadian exiles and the Old French War); well known and famous accounts.

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 6 (Struggle for the Mississippi Valley).

Chapter XV. Why the English Colonists became Revolutionists

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 2, pp. 157–158 (Protest of a town-meeting against the Stamp Act); pp. 158–162 (Franklin's statements to Parliament about taxation); pp. 162–4 (A newspaper account of the Boston Tea Party).

Hart, Source Book, No. 53, p. 137 (The Boston Tea Party).

Robinson and Beard, Readings, No. 65 (The Boston Tea Party).

McKinley's Illustrated Topics for American History, Topic U 13 (The work of the First Continental Congress, from its records).

Old South Leaflets, No. 68, Governor Hutchinson's account of the Boston Tea Party.

Histories. — Cooke, J. E., Stories of the Old Dominion, pp. 162–218.

Eggleston, Edward, Life in the Eighteenth Century, pp. 113–124 (James Otis); pp. 145–155 (Patrick Henry).

Hawthorne, Grandfather's Chair, pp. 152–157 (Stamp Act); 168–181 (British troops in Boston); 189–194 (The Boston Tea Party).

Jenks, Tudor, When America Won Liberty, pp. 165–209.

Tiffany, Nina Moore, From Colony to Commonwealth (Massachusetts).

Chapter XVI. The Outbreak of War

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 2, pp. 257–269 (A contemporary description of the battle of Lexington), pp. 261–266 (Washington's letter describing the taking of Boston).

Hart, Source Book, No. 57, p. 144 (The battle of Lexington).

Old South Leaflets, No. 47 (Washington's account of the army at Cambridge).

Histories. — Dickson, Marguerite, A Hundred Years of Warfare (1680–1789).

Fiske, John, The War of Independence.

Hawthorne, Grandfather's Chair, pp. 195–201 (The siege of Boston); 202–208 (Loyalists going into exile).

Jenks, Tudor, When America Won Liberty, pp. 209–245.

Scudder, H. E., George Washington (Washington's part).

Swett, Sophie, Stories of Maine, pp. 197–204 (The burning of Falmouth).

Tiffany, Nina Moore, From Colony to Commonwealth.

Chapter XVII. The Birth of a Nation

Sources. — Hart, Sources Readers, No. 2, pp. 172–175 (John Adams's letter about Independence).

Hart, Source Book, No. 58, p. 147 (John Adams's account of drafting the Declaration of Independence).

Histories. — Collins, E. D., A History of Vermont (The share of the Green Mountain settlers in the Burgoyne campaign).

Dickson, Marguerite, A Hundred Years of Warfare.

Drake, S. A., Decisive Events in American History, vol. ii (Burgoyne's Invasion of 1777); vol. iii (The Campaign of Trenton, 1776–7).

Fassett, J. H., Colonial Life in New Hampshire, pp. 103–119 (Burgoyne's campaign).

Jenks, Tudor, When America Won Liberty.

Lodge, H. C., and Roosevelt, T., Hero Tales, pp. 43–55 (Battle of Trenton); pp. 57–67 (Bennington).

Price, Lillian M., Lads and Lassies of Other Days (Letitia and the Redcoats, being a story of the Revolutionary period in New Jersey).

Redway, J. W., The Making of the Empire State (Burgoyne's invasion).

Scudder, H. E., George Washington (Washington's part in the war).

Stockton, F. R., Stories of New Jersey (The war in New Jersey).

Walton and Brumbaugh, Stories of Pennsylvania (The war in Pennsylvania).

Chapter XVIII. Life in War Times

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 2, pp. 101–106 (Boone's life on the frontier, 1769–75); pp. 218–220 (High prices in paper money); 237–242 (Camp life at Valley Forge); p. 252 (Camp fare in 1779).

Old South Leaflets, No. 43, George Rogers Clark's account of the capture of Vincennes.

Hulbert, A. B., Historic Highways, vol. vi, p. 107 (The journal of a western settler).

Histories. — Baldwin, James, Conquest of the Old Northwest, pp. 145–178 (Clark and the winning of the Northwest).

Bass, Florence, Stories of Pioneer Life (Boone).

Dickson, Marguerite, A Hundred Years of Warfare.

Drake, S. A., The Making of the Great West.

Dunn, J. P., Jr., Indiana, pp. 85–131 (Life in the French villages of the Illinois country); pp. 131–176 (George Rogers Clark's expedition).

Jenks, Tudor, When America Won Liberty.

Lodge and Roosevelt, Hero Tales, pp. 19–28 (Daniel Boone); pp. 31–41 (George Rogers Clark).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers of the Mississippi, pp. 68–83 (Boone); pp. 84–123. (Robertson and Sevier, the pioneers in Tennessee); pp. 124–149 (George Rogers Clark).

Roosevelt, Stories of the Great West, pp. 3–12 (Boone and founding Kentucky); pp. 15–51 (The backwoodsmen of the Alleghanies); pp. 55–65 (Clark).

Scudder, H. E., George Washington.

Chapter XIX. How the French helped the Colonists

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 2, pp. 244–249 (A French visitor's account of Washington's camp in 1780); pp. 301–306 (Dangers of ocean travel during the Revolution); pp. 307–309 (The siege of Yorktown).

Old South Leaflets, No. 97, Lafayette in the American Revolution; No. 98 Letters of Washington and Lafayette; No. 152, Paul Jones's account of the battle between the *Bon Homme Richard* and the *Serapis*.

Robinson and Beard, No. 68, Cornwallis's account of Yorktown.

Histories. — Alderman, E. A., A Brief History of North Carolina.

Burton, Alma Holman, Lafayette, the Friend of American Liberty.

Chandler, J. A. C., Makers of Virginia History.

Cooke, J. E., Stories of the Old Dominion.

Dickson, Marguerite, A Hundred Years of Warfare.

Hapgood, Hutchins, Paul Jones.

Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia, pp. 41–119 (The war in the South).

Jenks, Tudor, When America Won Liberty, pp. 245–269 (The Revolution, 1779–1783).

Lodge and Roosevelt, Hero Tales from American History, pp. 71–78 (The battle of King's Mountain).

McCorkle, Lutie Andrews, Old Time Stories of the Old North State.

McMaster, J. B., With the Fathers, pp. 253–270 (Franklin in France); pp. 271–280 (How the British left New York).

Means, Celina E., Palmetto Stories.

More, Paul E., Benjamin Franklin (Riverside Biographical Series).

Price, Lillian M., Lads and Lassies of Other Days (The Legs of Duncan Ketcham, a story of the British evacuation of New York).

Scudder, H. E., George Washington.

Seawell, Molly E., Twelve Naval Captains (Paul Jones).

Chapter XX. The Difficulties of the New Republic

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 47–50 (The pioneer), pp. 84–85 (A tavern in 1788), pp. 85–87 (A day traveling in a stage coach), pp. 92–96 (Traveling by canoe in western New York, 1796), pp. 97–98 (A journey on an Ohio flatboat), pp. 109–117 (Early voyages on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers), pp. 224–228 (A sea voyage in 1784).

Hart, Source Book, No. 67, pp. 169–172 (Manasseh Cutler's history of the Northwest Ordinance).

Histories. — James Baldwin, Conquest of the Old Northwest, pp. 179–186 (The *Magna Charta* of the Northwest), pp. 187–194 (The first American colony in the West), pp. 230–239 (Pioneers in the Ohio Country).

Bolton and Barker, The Makers of Texas.

S. A. Drake, The Making of the Ohio Valley States, pp. 133–139 (An Old Kentucky home), 142–144 (The Ohio pilgrims), pp. 153–160 (Marietta), pp. 161–167 (Founding Cincinnati), pp. 196–199 (The Western Reserve).

Earle, Alice M., Stage Coach and Tavern Days, pp. 253–264 (Early Stage-Coaches).

Elson, H. W., A Child's Guide to American History, pp. 104–124 (For an account of the settlement of the Ohio Valley).

Howells, W. D., Stories of Ohio, especially pp. 153–170 (Life in the backwoods), pp. 171–182 (The first settlements in Ohio).

Lummis, C. F., Spanish Pioneers (Pioneer missionaries and church builders in New Mexico).

Sexton, E. M., Stories of California, pp. 8–20 (Story of the missions).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, chs. 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 (National boundaries of the public domain; The beginnings of Kentucky and Tennessee; Organization of system of public lands; Peopling of the Northwest.

Stone and Fickett, Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago (Especially "Old Conestoga Wagon," and "Early Mail Carrier").

Chapter XXI. Starting the New Government

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, No. 68, pp. 172–175 (Some objections to the new Constitution), No. 71, pp. 181–183 (An account of launching the new government).

Histories. — Drake, S. A., The Making of the Ohio Valley States, pp. 200–205 (Ohio becomes a state).

Conant, C. A., Alexander Hamilton (Riverside Biographical Series).

Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, pp. 37–53 (Framing the Constitution), pp. 54–64 (Beginning the New Government).

Jenks, T., When America Became a Nation, pp. 1–15 (The beginning of a stronger government).

Scudder, H. E., Life of George Washington, pp. 219–225 (Washington and the convention at Philadelphia), pp. 226–242 (Washington as President).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 15 (Locating the capitol).

Stone and Fickett, Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago.

Chapter XXII. The United States and Europe

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 45–47 (A visit to Mt. Vernon), pp. 58–61 (A Boy Bound Out to Service).

Robinson and Beard, Readings, Nos. 69, 71, 72.

Histories. — Guerber, H. A., The Story of Modern France (The French Revolution).

Harding, S. B. and W. F., The Story of England, pp. 308–324 (England and the French Revolution).

Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia, pp. 154–162 (The cotton-gin).

McMaster, History of the People of the United States, vol. i, pp. 95–98 (Homes and clothing of the laborers).

Mowry, W. A. and A. M., American Inventions and Inventors, pp. 143–147 (Colonial ways of making clothing), pp. 148–152 (The cotton-gin), pp. 152–157 (Samuel Slater).

Scudder, H. E., Life of George Washington, pp. 242–248 (End of life).

Stone and Fickett, Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago (For cotton growing).

Chapter XXIII. Rule of Jefferson: A New West

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 228–231 (Thomas Jefferson), 206–209 (Lewis and Clark).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iii, pp. 331–333 (The new capital in 1800).

Old South Leaflets, vol. v, No. 105, A description of Louisiana in 1803.

Histories. — Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, pp. 99–116 (Lewis and Clark's expedition).

Hitchcock, Ripley, The Louisiana Purchase, pp. 45–53 (Spanish occupation of New Orleans), pp. 54–63 (Napoleon's Louisiana plan), pp. 64–94 (The purchase of Louisiana), pp. 97–198 (Exploring Louisiana), pp. 199–207 (Pike's expedition.)

Hosmer, J. K., The Louisiana Purchase.

Humphreys, M. G., Boys' Story of Zebulon Pike.

Kingsley, Eleanor F., The Story of Lewis and Clark.

Lighton, W. R., Lewis and Clark (In Riverside Biographical Series).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West, pp. 1–40 (Lewis and Clark).

Merwin, H. C., Life of Thomas Jefferson (In the Riverside Biographical Series).

Roosevelt, T., Stories of the Great West, pp. 69–94 (Lewis and Clark).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, chs. 16, 17 (Louisiana).

Thwaites, R. G., Brief History of Rocky Mountain Exploration.

Chapter XXIV. The United States and the Napoleonic Wars

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, No. 76, pp. 194–196 (A case of impressment), No. 81, pp. 209–211 (An opponent's view of effect of Embargo), No. 83, pp. 214–216 (Madison's reasons for the War of 1812).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iii, p. 389 (An account of a search).

Histories. — Tomlinson, E. T., The War of 1812.

Chapter XXV. The War of 1812

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 218–220 (The Capture of Washington).

Seawell, Molly E., Twelve Great Naval Captains (Isaac Hull, Oliver Perry, Thomas Macdonough, and James Lawrence).

Brown, W. G., Life of Andrew Jackson (In the Riverside Biographical Series).

Duncan, R. B., Brave Deeds of American Sailors, pp. 107–136 (Perry's victory on Lake Erie), pp. 137–172 (Story of the *Essex*).

Histories. — Tomlinson, E. T., The War of 1812.

Chapter XXVI. New Work and New Routes

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 99–102 (An early steamboat), pp. 102–104 (A trip on the Erie Canal, 1825).

Histories. — Brigham, A. P., From Trail to Railway, pp. 40–52 (Erie Canal), pp 63–73 (The route from Philadelphia to the West), pp. 86–97 (The National Road).

Channing and Lansing, Story of the Great Lakes, 251–265 (The Erie Canal).

Drake, S. A., The Making of the Ohio Valley States, pp. 229–232 (The National Road), pp. 233–235 (The first steamboat), pp. 236–239 (The Erie Canal).

Earle, Mrs. Alice M., Stage-Coach and Tavern Days.

Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, vol. i, pp. 82–95 (Fulton and the steamboat).

Mowry, W. A. and A. M., American Inventions and Inventors, pp. 158–163 (Making woolen clothing), pp. 200–206 (Stage-coaches), pp. 207–214 (Steamboats), pp. 215–222 (The Erie Canal).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 12 (Journeying to the Ohio Country); ch. 22 (The Cumberland National Road and the Erie Canal).

Stone and Fickett, Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago (The Conestoga wagon, The first steamboat).

Chapter XXVII. The March of Population Westward

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 132–134 (What became of the buffalo in the Old Northwest?), pp. 143–153, (The Pioneer and his Work), No. 4, pp. 1–3 (Life on a plantation).

Hart, Source Book, No. 92, pp. 237–240 (A settler in Illinois), No. 91 (The Missouri Compromise).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iii, 463–467 (People in the West, 1817).

Those who have access to the Reports of the Mississippi Historical Society, vol. iii, p. 90, and vol. x, p. 305, or to Phillips, American Industrial Society, vol. ii, p. 185, will find interesting descriptions of the life of the pioneer in the Old Southwest.

Histories. — Baldwin, James, Conquest of the Old Northwest, pp. 213–240 (Pioneers in Indiana).

Baldwin James, Life of Abraham Lincoln.

Brooks, E. S., True Story of Abraham Lincoln.

Butterworth, H., South America: a History of the Struggle for Liberty in the Andean Republics and Cuba.

Dodd, W. E., Jefferson Davis (Crisis Biographies).

Drake, S. A., The Making of the Ohio Valley States, pp. 239–244 (Indiana), 245–246 (Emigrants on the prairies), 246–254 (Illinois and Michigan).

Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, vol. i, pp. 148–166 (The Missouri Compromise), pp. 167–192 (The Monroe Doctrine).

Howells, W. D., Stories of Ohio, pp. 201–211 (Roads and canals of Ohio).

Lodge and Roosevelt, Hero Tales, pp. 323–335 (Early life of Lincoln).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley, pp. 170–184 (Lincoln's early life).

Moores, C. W., The Life of Lincoln.

Musick, J. R., Stories of Missouri.

Nicolay, Helen, The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln.

Perry, Frances M., and Elson, Henry W., Four Great American Presidents, vol. i.

Riley, F. L., School History of Mississippi.

Sparhawk, Frances Campbell, A Life of Lincoln for Boys.

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 13 (Pioneer life in the Ohio Valley), ch 18 (The Gulf Possessions).

Thompson, Maurice, Stories of Indiana, pp. 95–104 (Flat-boat days), pp. 82–94 (An itinerant preacher), pp. 208–227 (Canals and plank roads).

Chapter XXVIII. Government by the People

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 28–31 (Anecdotes of Daniel Webster).

Histories. — Brown, Wm. G., Life of Andrew Jackson (Riverside Biographical Series).

Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, vol. i, pp. 223–240 (An old time political campaign).

Guerber, H. A., The Story of France (Reform period in France).

Harding, S. B. and W. F., The Story of England, pp. 325–336 (The period of reform in England).

Perry, Frances M., and Elson, Henry W., Four Great American Presidents, vol. i (Jackson).

Sparks, E. E., Men Who Made the Nation.

Chapter XXIX. Problems of the New Democracy

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 329–334 (College life in 1820), pp. 341–347, 359–362 (Rural Schools).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iii, pp. 561–571 (Railroads and travel).

Histories. — Brown, Andrew Jackson (In Riverside Biographical Series).

Brigham, A. P., From Trail to Railway, pp. 53–62 (Beginning of the New York Central Railroad), pp. 98–110 (Beginning of the Baltimore and Ohio).

Howells, W. D., Stories of Ohio, pp. 201–217 (Early railroads in Ohio).

Mowry, W. A. and A. M., American Inventions and Inventors, pp. 223–228 (Railroads).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 14 (Evidences of the higher life of the people), ch. 23 (Steamboats and railroads in the Middle West).

Stone and Fickett, Days and Deeds a Hundred Years Ago (The first locomotive).

Thompson, M., Stories of Indiana, pp. 228–247 (Birth and growth of free schools).

Williams, S., Some Successful Americans (Peter Cooper, Mary Lyon, Horace Greeley).

Charles Dickens, Little Dorritt (a story of imprisonment for debt in England), and Edward Eggleston, Hoosier Schoolmaster (a story of the rural schools of America), are famous works of fiction.

Chapter XXX. Neighboring Countries Bring on New Questions

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 268–271 (On the Oregon Trail, 1846).

Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 166–168 (On the Oregon Trail).

Histories. — Bolton, H. E., and Barker, E. C. With the Makers of Texas.

Davis, Mary E., Under Six Flags: The Story of Texas.

Hitchcock, R., The Louisiana Purchase, pp. 208–238 (The trails).

Littlejohn, Texas History Stories, pp. 81–103 (Stephen Austin), 103–133 (Sam Houston), 133–147 (David Crockett), pp. 151–163 (The Alamo), 175–193 (Story of San Jacinto).

McMurry, C. A., Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West, 165–200 (Parkman's life in an Indian village of the West).

Musick, J. R., Stories of Missouri.

Parkman, Oregon Trail (Several editions, especially one edited by William Ellery Leonard).

Reynolds, J. S., Makers of Arkansas History.

Roosevelt, T., Stories of the Great West (The story of the Alamo).

Sabin, Henry, The Making of Iowa.

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of American People, ch. 25 (The Oregon expansion), ch. 26 (The acquisition of Texas).

Chapter XXXI. How the United States Won the Pacific Ocean

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 276–279 (The gold fields in California).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iv, p. 11 (On the coast of California, 1835), p. 26 (A young officer in the War with Mexico — Ulysses Simpson Grant), p. 28 (The capture of the City of Mexico), p. 43 (A Forty-niner).

Histories. — Bolton and Barker, With the Makers of Texas.
Davis, Mary E., Under Six Flags: The Story of Texas.
Drake, S. A., The Making of the Great West, pp. 248–288.
Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, vol. i, 241–262 (Discovery of gold in California.
McMurry, C. A., Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the Great West, pp. 60–94 (Over the Oregon and California Trail), 94–113 (Discovery of gold, Trip to California in '49).
Sexton, Ella M., Stories of California, pp. 37–57 (Days of gold and the "Forty-niners"), 57–67 (How Polly Elliott came across the plains), pp. 67–79 (Building the Overland Road).
Sparks, E.E., Expansion of the American People, chs. 27, 28 (The acquisition of California and discovery of gold).
Winterburn, Rosa V., The Spanish in the Southwest.

Chapter XXXII. A Great Domain, New Tools and Willing Hands

Sources. — Hart, Source Readers, No. 3, pp. 265–270 (Reception of Perry in Japan, 1852), No. 4, pp. 9–13 (A Southern home), pp. 29–39, 57–58 (Buying one's self), pp. 41–45 (A poor white's opinion of slavery).
Hart, Source Book, pp. 242–244 (Arguments for abolition of slavery), pp. 244–248 (A defense of slavery), pp. 255–257 (A slave's story), pp. 260–263 (A fugitive's story).
Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iii, pp. 571–573 (The first telegraph line).
Histories. — Channing, E., and Lansing, M. F., The Story of the Great Lakes, pp. 266–282 (The Great Lakes in 1840), pp. 283–298 (Coming of the railroad to Lake Erie), pp. 330–355 (The great industries of the Lakes).
Mowry, W. A. and A. M., American Inventions and Inventors, pp. 51–57 (Matches), 81–84 (Gas), 117–123 (The new farm implements), pp. 172–177 (The sewing-machine), pp. 265–277 (The telegraph).
Reynolds, J. S., Makers of Arkansas History.
Sabin, Henry, The Making of Iowa.
Thwaites, R. G., Stories of the Badger State (Wisconsin).
Williams, S., Some Successful Americans (Cyrus McCormick).

Chapter XXXIII. The Question of Slavery

Sources. — Hart, Source Reader, No. 4, pp. 51–56 (The Underground Railroad), pp. 59–67 (Fugitives), pp. 71–74 (John Brown's raid).
Hart, Source Book, pp. 279–281 (The Compromise of 1850), pp. 282–284 (Rescue of a slave), pp. 287–289 (The Kansas troubles), pp. 294–296 (John Brown's last speech).
Histories. — Alderman, E. A., A Brief History of North Carolina.
Brown, W. G., Stephen A. Douglas (In Riverside Biographical Series).
Channing and Lansing, Story of the Great Lakes (Lincoln and Douglas in Chicago).
Dodd, W. E., Life of Jefferson Davis.
Drake, S. A., The Making of the Great West, pp. 290–307 (The Struggle for Kansas).
Elson, H. W., Side Lights on American History, vol. i, pp. 263–293 (The Underground Railroad), pp. 294–309 (The Kansas and Nebraska Bill), pp. 310–336 (The Lincoln-Douglas debate).
Howells, W. D., Stories of Ohio, pp. 218–227 (Fugitive slaves and the Underground Railroad).
Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia, 250–271 (The slave question in Georgia).
Means, C. E., Palmetto Stories (South Carolina).
Moores, C. W., The Life of Abraham Lincoln.
Massey and Wood, The Story of Georgia.

Nicolay, Helen, The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln.
Riley, F. L., School History of Mississippi.
Sparhawk, Frances C., A Life of Lincoln for Boys.
Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 29 (The Struggle for Kansas and Nebraska).
Williams, S., Successful Americans (Abraham Lincoln, Horace Greeley, Alexander H. Stephens, and Henry Clay).

Chapter XXXIV. A Divided Nation

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 303–305 (Rousing the North), pp. 308–311 (The Southern soldier).
Hart, Source Readers, No. 4, pp. 119–124 (A soldier's life in camp), pp. 136–9 (Off for the front), pp. 139–144 (The innocent deserter), pp. 144–155 (The scout), pp. 156–159 (The guilty deserter), and many other stories, especially pp. 220–230 (On tent life).
Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iv, pp. 180–182 (Secession in Mississippi), pp. 290–293 (At the White House), and others, especially on the life of the soldiers.
Histories. — Baldwin, James, Life of Abraham Lincoln.
Brooks, E. S., True Story of Abraham Lincoln.
Dodd, W. E., Life of Jefferson Davis, pp. 215–225 (Formation of the New Republic).
Elson, Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 1–24 (Election of 1860), 26–46 (Secession of the southern states).
Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia, pp. 272–296 (Georgia during the Civil War).
Moores, C. W., The Life of Abraham Lincoln.
Nicolay, Helen, Boys' Life of Lincoln.
Riley, F. L., School History of Mississippi.
Sparhawk, Life of Lincoln for Boys.

Chapter XXXV. Beginning of Civil War

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 305–308 (The battle of Bull Run), pp. 311–312 (Supplies for the wounded).
Hart, History told by Contemporaries, vol. iv, pp. 319–323 (President Davis's difficulty in obtaining supplies for his armies), pp. 309–314 (Descriptions of the Battle of Bull Run), pp. 314–319 (A French traveler tells of Northern preparations for the War).
Histories. — Channing and Lansing, Story of the Great Lakes, pp. 317–329 (The Great Lakes in the Civil War).
Elson, Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 79–94 (Beginning of the War), pp. 131–135 (The blockade).
The biographies of Lincoln and Davis mentioned in the preceding chapter, and the histories of the states given in that and earlier chapters, will furnish further material for reading.

Chapter XXXVI. Story of Victory and Defeat

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 313–315 (Farragut at New Orleans), pp. 315–318, 327–329 (The story of emancipation of slaves), pp. 320–323 (Cave life in Vicksburg), pp. 323–327 (The battle of Gettysburg).
Hart, Source Readers, No. 4, pp. 293–299 (Bridging a river), pp. 399–403 (A nurse's experience).
Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iv, pp. 244–247 (Home life of a Southern lady), pp. 236–237 (The Northern women), pp. 368–371 (Taking of Vicksburg), pp. 372–376 (Pickett's Charge at Gettysburg), pp. 376–381 (The draft riot in New York City).
Histories. — Brooks, E. S., True Story of U. S. Grant.

Duncan, R. B., Brave Deeds of American Sailors, pp. 173–185 (*Monitor* and *Merrimac*).

Elson, Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 95–128 (The battle of Gettysburg).

Lodge and Roosevelt, Hero Tales from American History, pp. 185–196 (Battle of the *Merrimac* and *Monitor*, pp. 213–223 (The death of Stonewall Jackson), pp. 225–237 (The charge at Gettysburg), pp. 237–248 (The capture of Vicksburg).

The biographies and special state histories given in preceding chapters furnish other stories on this period of the war. For example, M. Thompson, Stories of Indiana, pp. 247–265 (A raid into a northern state) and W. D. Thompson, Stories of Ohio, pp. 228–257 (Ohio in the Civil War).

Chapter XXXVII. Conquering a Peace

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 329–333 (Lee's surrender and the assassination of Lincoln).

Hart, History Told by Contemporaries, vol. iv, pp. 437–440 (Grant's account of Lee's surrender).

Histories. — Duncan, Brave Deeds of American Sailors, pp. 186–200 (Farragut in Mobile Bay).

Lodge and Roosevelt, Hero Tales from American History, pp. 303–323 (Farragut at Mobile Bay), pp. 323–335 (Abraham Lincoln).

See *Century Magazine*, April, 1896, for one of the best accounts of the assassination of Lincoln.

Chapter XXXVIII. Peace and its Problems

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 336–339 (Conditions in the South, 1865), pp. 339–342 (A negro school), pp. 342–344 (A southerner's advice on reconstruction), pp. 344–351 (Reconstruction by Congress and its failure).

Histories. — Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia, pp. 297–306 (Reconstruction).

Elson, W. H., Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 149–182 (A new problem — reconstruction), pp. 183–218 (Trial of a President).

Riley, F. L., School History of Mississippi.

Chapter XXXIX. Neighbors and Rivals

Sources. — Robinson and Beard, Readings, No. 261 (Proclamation of the German Empire).

Histories. — Elson, Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 218–238 (Settlement of a great dispute — The *Alabama* claims).

Guerber, H. A., The Story of Modern France, pp. 302–335 (How France became a republic).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 35 (Alaska, or the beginnings of a colonial system).

Chapter XL. The Prairie States

Histories. — Brigham, A. P., Commercial Geography (Description of ranching, wheat growing, milling, and packing).

Hitchcock, R., The Louisiana Purchase, pp. 255–270 (The day of the pony express).

Price, O. W., The Land We Live In. Various topics, especially pp. 100–129 (Farms of the nation), and pp. 67–100 (A nation's forests and foresters).

Rocheleau, W. F., Great American Industries. Second Book, pp. 154–166 (Wheat Farming), pp. 166–178 (Milling).

Roosevelt, T. Stories of the Great West, pp. 109–254 (Ranching).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 30 (A transcontinental railroad).

The magazines contain many articles on these subjects. For example, The *Arena*, vol. xxv, p. 373, *Harper's Magazine*, vol. 60, p. 529 (Dakota wheat farming), and vol. 76, pp. 556, 768, 869 (Studies of the West), *The World's Work*. VII, 4232 (Life in the corn belt).

Chapter XLI. New Methods of Working

Histories. — Channing and Lansing, The Story of the Great Lakes, pp. 330–356 (Great industries of the Lakes), pp. 356–374 (Shipping on the Lakes), pp. 374–385 (The development of the city).

Baker, R. S., The Boy's Book of Inventions.

Brigham, Commercial Geography.

Burns, Elmer, E., The Story of Inventions.

Carpenter, F. O., Foods and Their Uses.

Fournier, E. E., Wonders of Physical Science, especially pp. 136–149 (Telephone), pp. 149–159 (Electric Light), pp. 170–178 (Wireless Telegraph), pp. 190–201 (The Aeroplane).

Meadowcraft, W. H., Boy's Life of Edison.

Mowry, W. A. and A. M., American Inventions and Inventors, pp. 77–80 (Kerosene), pp. 81–84 (Gas), pp. 85–89 (Electric lighting), pp. 278–285 (The cable), pp. 286–291 (The telephone).

Rocheleau, W. F., Great American Industries (How minerals are obtained).

Thompson, M., Stories of Indiana, pp. 279–296 (An account of the discovery and use of gas in Indiana).

Williams, A., How it is made (Descriptions of many industries).

Chapter XLII. The New South

Histories. — Brigham, A. P., Commercial Geography (Descriptions of industries of the South).

Harris, J. C., Stories of Georgia, pp. 307–315 (The New South).

Hart, A. B., The Southern South.

Price, O. W., The Land We Live in.

Riley, F. L., School History of Mississippi.

The Magazines have descriptions of the South. For example, the articles in the *Review of Reviews*, vol. xxxiii, pp. 177–215 (especially p. 200, How Galveston secured protection), and *The World's Work*, vol. xiv, pp. 8926–9042 (Descriptions of the New South).

The Life of Lucius Q. C. Lamar (one written by Edward Mayes), and Up from Slavery by Booker Washington (an autobiography) are of great interest.

Chapter XLIII. The Last Barriers

Histories. — Brigham, A. P., Commercial Geography.

Paxson, F. L., The Last American Frontier (especially for Indian wars and building of the Pacific railroads).

Price, O. W., The Land We Live In.

Sexton, E. M., Stories of California, pp. 75–83 (Wheat fields), pp. 82–102 (Fruit growing).

There are many magazine articles on these subjects. For example, *The National Geographical Magazine*, vol. xvii, p. 82 (Winning the West), p. 101 (Arizona and New Mexico), p. 103 (Oklahoma), *Review of Reviews*, xliii, p. 460 (The Roosevelt dam).

The *World's Work*, vol. ix, p. 5827 (Building a wonderful community), xii, p. 7603 (Oklahoma), xii, p. 7886 (Desert farming without irrigation), xv, p. 9691 (The real conquest of the West), xv, p. 10, 147 (Seizing the desert's last stronghold), xxi, p. 13,-928 (Ten years of Oklahoma).

Chapter XLIV. Laborers of a Great Nation

Readings on the recent immigrants. — Antin, Mary. The Promised Land (The autobiography of an immigrant).

Riis, J. A., The Making of an American.

Crowell, K. R., Coming Americans.

Chapter XLV. New Methods of Government

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 352–355 (The Tweed ring).

Histories. — Elson, Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 263–286 (A great presidential contest, 1876), pp. 286–325 (The death of President Garfield).

Dole, C. F., The American Citizen.

Dunn, A. W., The Community and the Citizen.

Haskin, F. J., The American Government.

Hill, Mabel, Lessons for Junior Citizens.

Reinsch, Paul S., The Young Citizen's Reader.

Richman, Julia, and Wallach, Isabel R., Good Citizenship.

Chapter XLVI. The New Education

Histories. — Hill, Mabel, Lessons for Junior Citizens, pp. 53–70 (School system), 154–168, (City planning, etc.).

The current magazines have much material on this subject. For example, see the *World's Work*, May, 1912, p. 102 (Country schools for country children); August, 1912, p. 460 (The country school of to-morrow); December, 1912, p. 143 (Wisconsin's agricultural high schools); April, 1913, p. 695 (Teaching real life in school); April, 1913, p. 699 (University that runs a state).

Chapter XLVII. The Republic and the Larger World

Sources. — Hart, Source Book, pp. 369–372 (A foreigner's opinion of Americans).

Histories. — Duncan, R. B., Brave Deeds of American Sailors, pp. 272–285 (Dewey at Manila).

Elson, W. H., Side Lights on American History, vol. ii, pp. 352–401 (The Spanish-American War).

Gulliver, Lucile, The Friendship of Nations (On the Peace movement).

Haskin, F. J., The American Government, pp. 362–373 (The Pan-American Union).

Kirkman, F. B., The Growth of Greater Britain (The British colonies).

Knapp, A., Story of the Philippines (vol. xi in The World and Its People Series).

MacClintock, S., The Philippines — A Geographical Reader.

Morris, Chas., Our Island Empire (Account of resources and people of Hawaii, Philippines, and Porto Rico).

Seabury, J. B., Porto Rico (In the World and its People Series).

Sparks, E. E., Expansion of the American People, ch. 36 (Securing colonies).

Twomby, A. S., Hawaii and its People.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776

A Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress Assembled

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts

of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measure.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions and unacknowledged by our laws, giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offenses;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE 1

SECTION I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives.

SECT. II. 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

2. No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the Executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECT. III. 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two

Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECT. IV. 1. The times, places and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECT. V. 1. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy;

and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECT. VI. 1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECT. VII. 1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it with his objections to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and, if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECT. VIII. The Congress shall have power

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States;

but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post offices and post roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas and offences against the law of nations;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State, in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings; — and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or office thereof.

SECT. IX. 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the

Congress prior to the year 1808; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding $10 for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECT. X. 1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

SECTION I. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

[The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]

3. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4. No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5. In case of the removal of the President from office or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

6. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECT. II. 1. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECT. III. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECT. IV. The President, Vice-President and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and on conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

SECTION I. 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECT. II. 1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of

another State; — between citizens of different States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECT. III. 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION I. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECT. II. 1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECT. III. 1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECT. IV. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendments which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

The ratification of the conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

[Signed by] Go WASHINGTON
Presidt and Deputy from Virginia

ARTICLES IN ADDITION TO AND AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, PROPOSED BY CONGRESS, AND RATIFIED BY THE LEGISLATURES OF THE SEVERAL STATES, PURSUANT TO THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE ORIGINAL CONSTITUTION[1]

ARTICLE I. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II. A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX. The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Con-

[1] The first ten Amendments were adopted in 1791.

stitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state. [Adopted in 1798.]

ARTICLE XII. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; — the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. — The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States. [Adopted in 1804.]

ARTICLE XIII. Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation. [Adopted in 1865.]

ARTICLE XIV. Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United

States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of Electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article. [Adopted in 1867.]

Article XV. Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation. [Adopted in 1870.]

Article XVI. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration. [Adopted in 1913.]

Article XVII. Section 1. The Senate of the United States shall be com-

posed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

Section 2. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided that the Legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

Section 3. This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution. [Adopted in 1913.]

INDEX

Abolitionists, 340, 377, 381, 387, 420
Acadia (*a*-kā′ dĭ-a), 99, 106, 156–157
Acts of Congress, see Congress
Acts of Parliament, see Parliament
Adams, John, 193 (portrait), 195, 238, 242; as President, 259–260, 263
Adams, John Quincy, 295, 320; as President, 326, 347
Adams, Samuel, 169 (portrait), 171, 189, 238
Admiralty Courts, 145
Aeroplanes, 471
Africa, 3, 348, 370
Agricultural High Schools, 515, 516
Agriculture, see Farming
Alabama, 312, 313, 391, 441, 477, 481
Alabama, cruiser, 407; Claims, 446
Alaska, 349, 448, 485–486; area, Appendix, vi
Albany, 24, 78; Congress, 154
Alden, John, 51
Alexander II, of Russia, 447–448
Algonquin (ăl′-gŏn-kwĭn) Indians, 32–34
Alien and Sedition Acts, 260, 263
Alleghany Mountains (al′-e-gā-nĭ), 28
Allen, Ethan, 185
Amendments, see Constitution
America, discovery of, 4; origin of name, 7; early explorations in, 8–14, 19, 22–24, 33–35, 37–38
American Federation of Labor, 494
Americus Vespucius (ä-mĕr′ ĭ-cŭs vĕs-pū-shŭs), 7
Ancient Times, defined, 2 (Note)
Anderson, Major Robert, 395, 396
Andros, Sir Edmund, 143 (portrait)
Antietam, battle of, 418
Apaches (ä-pä′ chă), 456
Appalachian Mountains, 27–28, 29, 37–38, 112, 401
Appalachian Valley, 28, 402, 415
Appomattox (ăp′ pō-măt′ tuks), 430
Arbitration, in labor disputes, 496; international, 529–31
Architecture, colonial, 121
Argentine Republic, 318
Arizona, 435; as a state, 484, 488, 505, 506
Arkansas, 9, 349; as a state, 381, 392, 397, 423, 505
Arkwright, Richard, 251
Armada (är-mä′ dă), 18
Arnold, Benedict, 200, 216
Arthur, C. A., app., vii
Articles of Confederation, 194–195
Ashburton Treaty, 352
Astoria, 274
Atchison, Kas., 383
Atlanta, 428–429, 478
Augusta, Ga., 119, 335
Austin, Moses and Stephen, 345–346
Austria, 149, 153, 277–278; and Hungary, 452
Automobile, 471

Bacon, Nathaniel, 144
Balboa (băl-bō′ ä), 5–6
Baltimore, 75, 157, 293–294, 335–336, 398, 465, 473
Baltimore, Lord (portrait), 71–75
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 335, 336, 363
Bank notes, 337, 338, 421
Bank of the United States, first, 245–246; second, 337–338
Baptists, 136
Barbados (bär-bā′ dōz), 89, 98
Battle-ship, defined, 153
Batts, Captain Thomas, 37
Beauregard (bō′ rhe-gard), General, 409
Bell, Alexander Graham, 464
Bennington, battle of, 200
Benton, Senator, 324, 351

Berkeley, Sir William, 87, 144
Bessemer, Henry, 466
Bienville (bē-ăN′ vēl), 108
Birmingham, Ala., 477
Blaine, James G., 508
Blockades, 290–292, 405–406
Blue Ridge Mountains, 28
Bohemian immigration, 492
Bolivar (bŏl′ ī-var), Simon, 318–319
Bonaparte (bo′ nȧ-pärt), Napoleon, 260, 266–268, 276–284; portrait, 279
Boone, Daniel, 114, 208–209, 270
Bosses, political, 500–501
Boston, 61, 121, 137, 168, 169, 170–171, 172–173, 181, 186–187, 336, 514
Bowling Green, Ky., 403, 413, 414
Braddock, General, 155
Braddock's Road, 208
Bradford, William, 51
Bragg, General, 415
Brandywine, battle of, 201
Brazil, 531
Breckinridge, J. C., 390, 391
Brewster, William, 50–51
Bridgeport, Conn., 473
Brockton, Mass., 473
Brooklyn, 84, 197
Brotherhoods, Locomotive Engineers, Firemen, Trainmen, 494
Brown, John, 383, 387–388
Brush, C. F., 465
Bryan, William J., 509
Buccaneers (bŭc′ca-neer), 88
Buchanan (bŭ-kăn′ ăn), James, 386, 387, 392, 393, 395, 397
Buell, General, 414
Buena Vista (bwā′ nä vĭs-tä), battle of, 356
Buffalo, 303, 365, 461, 466
Bulgarian immigration, 492
Bull Run, battles of, first, 407–410; second, 418
Bunker Hill, battle of, 183–184
Burgoyne (bûr-goin′), General, 199–200
Burnside, General, 418
Burr, Aaron, 263

Cabinet, President's, 242–243
Cable, Atlantic, 464
Cabot (kăb′ ŭt), 12–13
Cahokia (kȧ-hō′ kĭ-ȧ), 108
Calhoun (kăl-hoon), John C., 283, 325, 331–332, 352, 378, 392; portrait, 331
California, under Spanish rule, 226–227; annexation of, 352, 354–358; as a state, 376, 378, 380, 454, 460, 486–487, 505, 506
Calvert, Cecil, 71
Calvert, Leonard, 72
Cambridge, Mass., 61, 64, 68
Canada, under French rule, 22, 99–109; English conquest of, 149–159; under English rule, 159, 207, 226, 286–289, 348–349; Dominion of, 448–50; Northwest, 485
Canning, George, 320
Carnegie, Andrew, 530
Carnegie Institution, 516
Carolinas, 95, 107, 108, 136; see further, North and South Carolina
Caroline, French Fort, 11, 410
Carpet-Baggers, 441, 443
Carson, Nev., 455
Cartier (kar′ ty ā), Jacques, 12
Cartwright, Edmund, 251, 252
Carver, John, 52, 54
Cass, Lewis, 377
Catholics, see Roman Catholics
Caucus, "King," 324, 325
Centennial Exposition, 443–444, 472
Central Pacific Railroad, 454–455
Cervera (thĕr-vā′ rä), 524
Champlain (shăm-plān), Samuel de, 19 (portrait), 20, 22–23, 31–33
Chancellorsville, battle of, 421
Channing, W. E., 340
Charles I, 59–60, 69–70, 71
Charles II, 70, 83, 87, 90, 104
Charleston, S.C., 96, 169, 173, 197, 218, 219, 335, 395–397, 402, 403, 404, 433
Charlestown, Mass., 61, 187
Charlotte, N.C., 477–478, 479
Charters, colonial, 142–143, 148
Chase, S. P., 379
Chattanooga, Tenn., 402, 404, 414, 425, 477
Chesapeake, The, 281

Chicago, 34, 287, 303, 363, 364, 365, 366, 458, 461, 468, 472, 491, 519–520
Chicago University, 516
Chickamauga (chĭk′ ȧ-mô′ gȧ), battle of, 425
China, 361, 532; immigrants from, 454, 492, 525
Cibola (sĭ bō lȧ), 10
Cincinnati, 233, 303–304, 365, 458
Cities, growth of, 98, 121, 491; government of, 503–504; planning, 507
Civil Service Reform, 501–502
Civil War, 395–431
Claiborne, William, 73, 82
Clark, George Rogers, 210–211
Clark, William, 271–274
Clay, Henry, 282–283, 286, 316, 326, 328, 352, 378–379 (portrait)
Clermont, The, 302
Cleveland, 303, 307, 365, 366, 468
Cleveland, Grover, 496, 508 (portrait), 509, 525
Clinton, De Witt, 306
Clinton, George, app., iii
Clinton, General Henry, 215–216, 217
Clipper ships, 366–367
Coal, 252–253, 298, 477, 485
Colbert, 107
Colfax, Schuyler, app., vi
Colleges, 67–68, 133–134, 342–343, 516–518
Colombia, United States of, 318
Colonial architecture, 121
Colonial system, old, 129, 164; new, 330, 348, 532
Colonies, British, see under names, Canada, etc.
Colorado, 435; as a state, 460, 488, 505, 506
Columbia, S.C., 478
Columbia River, 272
Columbian Exposition, 472
Columbus, 2–5
Columbus, Ky., 413, 414
Commerce, 82, 127–132, 161, 165, 206, 235–236, 257–258, 267–268, 278–284; see app., xv
Commercial High Schools, 515
Commission plan of city government, 503–504
Compromise of 1850, 378–380
Conciliation, Boards of, 496
Concord, battle of, 178–180
Conestoga (con′-es tō′-gȧ) wagons, 306
Confederate States, 391–431
Congregationalists, 62, 136
Congress, Albany, 154; Stamp Act, 167; Continental, 174–175, 182, 189, 191, 194, 195, 216, 230–237; first National, 242
Congress, Acts of, early 242–246; Alien and Sedition, 260; Embargo, 279; Non-Intercourse, 280; Tariff of 1816, 301; National Road, 305; Missouri Compromise, 316; Tariff of 1833, 332; Compromise of 1850, 378–379; Kansas and Nebraska Bill, 381–382; Homestead Act, 434–435; Reconstruction, 437–441; Civil Service Act, 502; Interstate Commerce Act, 509
Connecticut, colonial, 64–68, 128, 134, 140, 143, 148; in the Revolution, 167, 192–193; as a state, 231
Conservation, 489–490, 533
Constitution, formed, 239–241; amended, 263, 438, 441, 507, app., ix
Constitution, The, 290–291
Continental Congress, see Congress, Continental
Conventions, 324–325, 504
Cooper, Peter, 335
Coöperation, 497–498
Corinth, Miss., 403, 414
Cornell, Ezra, 366, 517
Cornell University, 517
Cornwallis, 198, 218–220
Coronado (ko-ro-nä′ do), 10
Correspondence, committees of, 171, 172
Cortés (kor′-tez), 8
Cotton, 122, 254–255, 297, 298, 372–373, 406, 435–436, 475
Cotton-gin, 254, 255
Cotton-seed oil, 478
Crockett, David, 347
Cromwell, Oliver, 69
Cuba, 4, 159, 319, 381, 522–524, 526
Cumberland Gap, 208

Cumberland National Road, 304–305
Cumberland River, 403, 414
Curaçao (kōō′ rä-sō′), 88–89
Curtis, George William, 502
Custer, General, 456

Dallas, G. M., app., v
Dartmouth College, 134
Davenport, John, 65
Davis, Jefferson, 313–315, 379, 391 (portrait), 392, 393
Dearborn, Fort, 287
Debt, public, 244, 421, 431
Debtors, imprisonment of, 117, 340
Declaration of Independence, 190–191
Deerfield, Mass., 105–106
Delaware, 81, 91, 97, 239, 241, 438
Democratic party, 247, 328, 385, 386, 387, 390, 391, 420, 429, 442, 443, 508–510
Denver, 455
De Soto (dā so′ to), Ferdinand, 8–11
Detroit, 102, 103, 160, 209, 211, 229, 237, 287, 289, 363, 365, 366
Dewey, Commodore George, 523
Diaz (dee′ äth), 3
Dickinson, John, 195 (portrait)
Dinwiddie, Governor, 152
Dissenters, 89, 95
District of Columbia, 244, 264, 380, 420
Dollar, Spanish, 132, 231
Donelson, Fort, 413, 414
Douglas, Frederick, 438
Douglas, Stephen A., 379, 384, 385–386, 390, 397
Drake, Francis, 13
Dred Scott affair, 385, 386
Dress, colonial, 137
Duquesne (dü-kān′), Fort, 152, 155, 157, 158
Duquesne, Governor, 150, 151, 152
Dutch, see New Netherland
Dynamo, 464–465

East India Companies, 18–19, 77–78, 172–173
East Liverpool, O., 473
Ecuador, 318
Eaton, Theophilus, 65.
Education, colonial, 67–69, 133–134; national, 340–343; in South, 481; new, 513–520.
Edison, T. A., 465.
Electoral College, 240, 259, 263.
Electricity, 464–466.
Elizabeth, Queen, 13–14, 21
Emancipation, 418–420, 438
Embargo, 279–280, 297
Emigration, "great," 60, 69; to Virginia, 87; to West Indies, 87–89; to Pennsylvania, 91–92; second great, 97–98; German, Swiss, 111–112; Scotch-Irish, 114–115; see Immigration
Employers' Association, 496–497
Endicott, John, 60
England, early explorations and settlements, 12–14, 21–22, 26; see under Virginia, Massachusetts, etc.; Civil War in, 69–70; struggle with the Dutch, 77–85; struggle with France, 99, 103–108, 149–159; Revolution of 1688, 104–105; colonial policy, 127–131, 139–146; quarrel with American colonies, 164–176; Revolutionary War, 178–221; Industrial Revolution, 250–253; Trade disputes with U. S., 258–259, 276–284; war with France, 266, 268, 276–284; Oregon question, 274, 350, 352, 356; War of 1812, 286–295; American tariff, 300–301; Monroe Doctrine, 320–321; suffrage in, 323, 329; new colonial policy, 348–349; during American Civil War, 406–407, 419; *Alabama* Claims, 446; recent reform in, 450–451; growth of colonies, 522; emigration to United States from, 532
Episcopal church, 49, 89, 136
Ericsson (ĕr′ ik-sŭn), John, 416
Erie, Lake, battle of, 288–289
Erie, Pa., 150, 288
Erie Canal, 306–307, 312, 335, 336, 349
Española (ĕs-pān yō′ lä), 88
Essex, The, 290, 291–292
Evangeline, the poem, 157
Exports, from the colonies, 127–132, 161; during Revolution, 206–207; from the

United States, 235, 261, 278, 279, 458, 461, app., xv
Exposition, Centennial, 443–44; later, 472, 481

Factory system, 252, 297, 463
Fairbanks, C. W., app., viii
Fall River, Mass., 473
Fallam, Robert, 37
Falmouth, Me., 203
Faneuil (fan′ el) Hall, picture of, 141
Farming, in the colonies, 123–125; in the South, 254, 372–374, 439, 475–477; recent progress, 461, 488–489, 498
Farragut (făr′ȧ-gŭt), D. G., 415, 428
Federal Convention, 238–240; see Constitution
Federalist party, 247, 268, 292–293, 327
Ferdinand VII, of Spain, 318, 319
Fisheries, 132, 295
Florida, 8, 116–117, 159, 221, 226; purchase of, 318 (area, app., iii); as a state, 381, 391, 441, 476, 479, 480
Forestry, 489–490
Fox, George, 90
France, early explorations and settlements, 12, 19–20, 26, 29, 31–38; in West Indies, 88; in Acadia, Canada, and Mississippi Valley, 99–103, 108; struggles with the English, 103–108, 149–159; aid in Revolutionary War, 213–221; French Revolution, 255–256; American disputes with, 256–261; sale of Louisiana, 266–268; Napoleonic wars, 276–284; Monroe Doctrine, 319–320; Revolution of 1830, 329; Civil War in U. S., 406; Mexican affair, 446–447; Third Republic, 451–452; new colonial empire, 522
Franklin, Benjamin, writings, 134–135; plan of union, 154; in France, 195, 213–214; portrait, 214; at the Federal Convention, 238
Frederick the Great, 116, 149, 153
Fredericksburg, battle of, 418
Freedmen, 437–438
Free Soil party, 377
French and Indian War, 148–159
French Revolution, 250, 255–256
Friends, Society of, 94
Frontenac (frôN′ tē-nàk′), Fort, 157
Fruit farms, 486
Fugitive Slave Law, 376–377
Fulton, Robert, 302
Fur trade, 57, 79, 81, 102–103, 119, 273, 320, 349

Gadsden Purchase, 358; map, 357; area, app., v
Gage, General, 178, 181, 186
Gallatin (găl′ȧ-tĭn), Albert, 266
Galveston, Tex., 479, 503
Gama (gä′ mä), Vasco da, 3
Garfield, James A., 502
Garrison, William Lloyd, 340, 377, 437
Gas-engines, 470–471
Gates, General, 200, 213, 218
Genet (zhė̆h-nā′), 257
George II, 117
George III, 165 (portrait)
Georgia, 117–119, 241, 254, 373, 391, 441
Germans, settlements of, 93–94, 111–113, 115, 119; later immigration of, 310, 370–371, 532; value of work, 371; in the Union army, 404
Germantown, Pa., 93–94
Germany, 112, 310, 370, 451, 522
Gerry, Elbridge, app., iii
Gettysburg, battle of, 421–423
Girls, education of, 133, 343
Gladstone, W. E., 446
Gloversville, N.Y., 473
Gold, discoveries of, 358–360, 435, 485
Government, colonial, 139, 140, 142; reorganization during the Revolution, 192–195; federal, 238–247; changes in Jackson's time, 323–328; recent changes, 500–510
Grand Rapids, Mich., 478
Grangers, 497–498
Grant, U. S., 413–415, 423, 425–430, 442; portrait, 426
Gray, Captain, 274
Great Britain, see England
Great Lakes, 33, 303, 365
Greek, study of, 134
Greek immigrants, 492
Greeley, Horace, 368, 394 (portrait), 508

Greenbacks, 421
Green Mountain Boys, 185, 200
Greene, Nathaniel, 218–219
Grenville, George, 164–165
Guam (gwäm), 524; area, app., viii
Guerrière (gâr-ry ar), The, 291
Guilford Court House, battle of, 219
Guthrie, Okl., 484.

Hague Tribunal, 529–530
Haiti (hā′ tĭ), 88
Half Moon, The, 23, 24, 33
Hamilton, Alexander, 238, 242, 244, 245 (portrait), 246–247, 263
Hamlin, Hannibal, app., vi
Hancock, General, 422–423
Hanover, N.H., 134
Hargreaves, James, 250–251
Harper's Ferry, 387–388
Harrison, Benjamin, 509 (portrait)
Harrison, W. H., 282, 352
Harrodsburg, Ky., 209
Hartford, Ct., 65, 81
Harvard College, 68–69, 133, 170
Havana, 159, 523
Hawaii (hä-wī′ ē), 361, 524, 525
Hay, John, 532
Hayes, R. B., 442 (portrait), 443, 502
Hayne, Senator, 332
Hendricks, T. A., app., vii
Henry, Fort, 413, 414
Henry, Patrick, 162, 167 (portrait), 189, 210, 238
Hessian soldiers, 197
High Point, N.C., 478
High Schools, 68, 342, 513–516
Hobart, G. A., app., viii
Holland, 49, 216, 221, 278
Homestead Law, 384, 434–435
Hooker, General, 425
Hooker, Thomas, 64
Hopkins Grammar School, 69
House of Representatives, see Congress
Houston, Sam, 347
Howe, Elias, 369
Howe, General, 184, 186, 196, 197, 199, 200–201, 205, 215
Hudson, Henry, 23–24, 32–33, 77
Hudson Bay Company, 103–104, 349, 350
Huguenot (hū′ gĕ-nŏt), 96
Hull, Captain Isaac, 290–291
Hull, General, 287
Hungary, 452

Iberville (ē bĕr vēl′), 106–108
Idaho, 274, 356, 434, 460, 487, 488, 506
Illinois, under French rule, 108, 148; Clark's expedition to, 211; as a territory, 248, 311, 312; as a state, 313, 337, 342
Immigration, see Emigration; after 1815, 310, 311; after 1845, 369–371; after Civil War, 433, 457, 485, 491–493; as a whole, 532
Impeachment, 440
Impressment of seamen, 280–283, 295
Indentured servants, 43, 111, 115
Independence, Declaration of, 189–191
Independents, see Separatists
India, 2, 3, 5, 153, 164
Indiana, Clark's expedition to, 211; as a territory, 248, 311, 312; as a state, 313, 323, 342, 470
Indian Territory, 457, 483, 484
Indians, Champlain and, 29–32; attack Virginians, 47; in New England, 54–56, 63–64, 66–67; in Maryland, 72; in New Netherland, 79–80; in Pennsylvania, 94; missionaries to, 101–102; as allies, 104–106; in French and Indian War, 154–155; in Pontiac's War, 160; in Kentucky and Tennessee, 209–210; Spanish missions among, 226–228; Wayne's victory over, 247–248; in Louisiana Territory, 271–273; fight at Tippecanoe, 282; Creek, 318; recent wars with, 456; become citizens, 483
Industries, colonial, 125–129; during Revolution, 205–206; development of, 250–255, 297–300, 367–369, 434; recent, 463–474, 475–480, 485–490, 491–498
Initiative, 505
Internal Improvements, 301–302, 305, 306
Interstate Commerce Act, 509
Inventions, 250–255, 365–369, 464
Iowa, 343, 349, 370, 381, 457
Ireland, 310, 370
Iron, 128, 252–253, 298, 467–469, 477

Iroquois (ĭr-ō-kwoi′), 30, 31, 32, 104, 154
Italy, 452, 492, 532

Jackson, Andrew, victory at New Orleans, 294; and Creeks, 318; Presidency, 325–328, 331–332, 337–339, 347; portrait, 325
Jackson, "Stonewall," 409, 417, 421
Jamaica, 89
James I, 20, 21, 22, 48, 59
James II, 83, 84, 103–104, 113, 143
Jamestown, Va., 21–22, 40–44; fair at, 481
Japan, 361; laborers of, 492, 525
Jay, John, 243, 258–259 (portrait)
Jefferson, Thomas, in the Revolution, 191, 195; in France, 238; in the Cabinet, 242, 244; founder of Democratic party, 246–247; Vice-President, 259–260; Presidency, 263–274, 276–282; founds University of Virginia, 343
Jenckes, Thomas, 502
Jesuit missions, 101–102
Johns Hopkins University, 516
Johnson, Andrew, 437 (portrait), 439–441
Johnson, R. M., app., iv
Johnston, A. S., 414
Johnston, J. E., 409, 410, 417
Joliet (zho′ le-ā′), Louis, 34
Jones, John Paul, 217 (portrait)
Jumonville (zhü′ mŏn′ vēl′), 152
Jury, trial by, 47

Kansas, 10, 272; struggle in, 381–384; as a state, 470, 484, 506
Kansas City, 350, 458, 461
Kansas and Nebraska Bill, 381–382
Kăskăs′ kĭă, 108, 211
Kearny (kar′ ni), General, 356
Kentucky, settlement of, 209, 211, 234; Mississippi question in, 236; admitted to Union, 248; Resolutions of, 260; as a state, 312, 314, 315, 323; in Civil War, 408, 413, 414, 415; slavery in, 438
Key West, 480
King, W. R., app., v
King William's War, 105
King's Mountain, battle of, 218
Knights of Labor, 494
Knox, Henry, 243
Knoxville, Tenn., 402, 477
Kosciuszko, 215
Ku Klux Klan (kū klŭks), 442

Labor Unions, 493–495
Lafayette (lä′ fā′ yĕt′), 214, 219, 256, 329
Lake Champlain, battle of, 289–290
Lake Erie, battle of, 288–289
Lands, Public, 232, 312, 434–435, 458
La Salle (lä säl′), 34–35, 107
Latin, study of, 134
Lawrence, Kas., 383
Laws, see Acts
Lee, R. E., 397–398, 410, 417–418, 421–423, 427–430
Legislatures, colonial, 46, 57, 66, 74, 84, 139–142, 166; state, 193–194
Leland Stanford University, 516
Lewis, Meriwether, 271–274
Lexington, battle of, 178–180
Leyden (lī′dĕn), 49–50
Liberal Republican Party, 508
Libraries, colonial, 47, 68; traveling, 518
Lincoln, Abraham, youth of, 313–314; candidate for Senate, 385–386; Presidency, 390, 393, 395–397, 398, 405, 418–420, 426, 429–431, 436, 437, 439.
Linotype, 470
Lithuanian immigrants, 492
Locomotives, early, 334–336
Longfellow, H. W., 157
Long Island, 80, 127
Lookout Mountain, battle of, 452
Los Angeles, 227, 505
Louis XIV, 103, 104
Louis XVI, 213, 214, 255, 256
Louisburg, 157
Louisiana, named, 35; under French rule, 108; Spanish, 159, 236, 259; Purchase of, 266–274; admitted to Union, 313; slavery in, 316; in Civil War, 391, 415, 423; industry in, 476–477
Louisville, Ky., 234, 303
Lowell, Francis, 29
Lowell, J. R., 380
Loyalists, 191–192, 207, 218, 286
Lumber trade, early, 129, 131
Lundy's Lane, battle of, 288

Lynn, Mass., 61, 128
Lyon, Captain, 398
Lyon, Mary, 343 (portrait)

Macdonough, Commander, 289–290
Machine tools, 469
Mackinac, 102, 237, 287
Madison, James, during Revolution, 195; in Philadelphia Convention, 238–239 (portrait); Presidency, 276, 282–284
Magellan, Ferdinand, 2, 6–7
Magyar (Hungarian) immigrants, 492
Maine, settlement of, 99; admitted to Union, 316; boundary dispute, 333; adopts Initiative, 505
Maine, The, 523
Manassas Junction, 403, 409
Manhattan Island, 78; see New York City
Manila, 159, 523, 524
Manitoba, 485
Mann, Horace, 340–341 (portrait)
Manual Training High Schools, 515
Marconi, 465
Maria Theresa, 149, 153
Marietta, 233
Marion, Francis, 218
Markham, William, 92
Marquette (mär kĕt'), 33–34, 102
Marshall, T. R., app., ix
Martinique (mar' tin-neek'), 88
Maryland, founding of, 71–75; trade of, 129; religion in, 136; government of, 140, 144; in French and Indian War, 156; attitude toward state land claims, 231; gives District of Columbia, 264; slavery in, 373, 438; in Civil War, 398
Mason and Slidell, 406
Massachusetts, settlement of, 24, 49–57, 59–62; Indian raids, 105–106; colonial industries, 126, 128; education, 133; government, 140, 141, 142, 143; land claims, 148, 231; resists parliament, 167, 170–174; in the Revolution, 178–187, 193; Shays' Rebellion, 234–235; ratifies Constitution, 242; in 1812 War, 293; slavery in, 316; boundary dispute, 333; early railroads of, 336; reforms in, 340–341; shoe trade, 372; soldiers in Civil War, 397; education in, 514, 517
Massachusetts Agricultural College, 517; Institute of Technology, 517
Massachusetts Bay Company, 60
Massasoit, 55
Maximilian, Emperor, 447
Mayflower, The, 51
McClellan, G. B., 408, 410, 415–418, 429
McCormick, Cyrus, 367–368
McDowell, General, 409, 417
McKinley, William, 509 (portrait), 522, 523
Meade, General, 422–423, 426
Meat trade, 304, 458
Memphis, Tenn., 402, 403, 414
Menendez (mă-nĕn deth), 11
Mennonites, 111–112
Merrimac, The, 415–417
Mexico, conquest of, 8; missions of, 226–227; independence of, 319; war with, 345–348, 354–358; Maximilian in, 446–447
Michigan, territory, 248, 287, 289, 342; as a state, 381, 467
Michigan Central Railroad, 363
Middle Ages, defined, 2
Miles, General, 524
Milwaukee, 303, 366
Mining, 487; see also Gold
Minneapolis, 461
Minnesota, 363, 457, 467; admitted to Union, app., vi
Mint, U. S., 245
Minute-men, 178
Missionary Ridge, battle of, 425
Missions, Spanish, 11–12, 226–227, 345, 354; French, 33, 101
Mississippi, as a state, 312, 313; secedes, 391; Reconstruction in, 441
Mississippi River, 9, 34–35, 236, 259, 266–268, 403, 414–415, 423
Missouri, explorations in, 270, 271, 312; admitted to Union, 316–318; early trade of, 349; in Kansas struggle, 383; in Civil War, 398, 407–408; slavery in, 438; adopts Initiative, 505
Missouri Compromise, 316–318, 382, 385
Mobile, Ala., 108, 428
Mohawk River, 28, 81
Molasses Act, see Sugar Act

Money, 132, 231, 441
Monitor, The, 415–417.
Monmouth, battle of, 216
Monroe, James, 320
Monroe Doctrine, 320, 447
Montana, 271, 435, 460, 487, 488, 505
Montcalm, 158–159
Monterey, battle of, 356
Montgomery, Ala., 391
Montreal, 22, 103, 159
Moravians, 116
Mormons, 360, 460, 488
Morse, S. F. B., 365–366
Morton, L. P., app., vii
Mount Holyoke Seminary, 343
Mount Vernon, 222
Moyne, Pierre le, 106–108
Murfreesboro, battle of, 415

Napoleon I, 260, 266–268, 276–284, 318
Napoleon III, 446–447, 451
Nashville, 376, 403, 414, 429
National Association of Manufacturers, 497
National Farmers' Alliance, 498
National (Cumberland) Road, 304–305
Natural gas, 470, 477
Naturalization, 116, 258, 281
Naval stores, 129
Navigation Acts, 82, 131, 145, 165
Nebraska, 381–384, 457, 460, app., vi
Needham, James, 38
Nelson, Lord, 266, 277 (portrait)
Netherland, New, 23–24, 77–85
Nevada, 435, 460, 505
New Amsterdam, 24, 77, 80, 83–84
Newcastle, Pa., 114
New England, beginnings of, 49–69; early trade of, 129, 130; local government in, 140, 143; attitude toward War of 1812, 280, 292–293; recent industries of, 463
New Hampshire, 68, 134
New Haven, 65, 66, 67, 69
New Jersey, beginnings of, 84, 97; education in, 134; religion, 136; under Andros, 143; in the Revolution, 203; in Philadelphia Convention, 240, 241; slavery in, 254; industries of, 463
New Mexico, 226, 376, 378, 380, 382, 484, 489, 505
New Orleans, 108, 159, 259, 268, 294, 298, 303, 304, 365, 415, 479, 504
Newport, R.I., 64, 203, 216
New York, colonial, 24, 77, 78–85, 97–98, 128, 140, 142, 143, 148; in the Revolution, 167, 189, 191, 199–200, 203; land claims, 231; and the new Constitution, 239, 242; Erie Canal, 306–307; railroads of, 336–337; industry in, 463; adopts Civil Service Reform, 502–503; education in, 517
New York City, 80, 98, 121, 134, 167, 168, 169, 173, 187, 196–197, 215, 220, 229, 307, 491, 501, 503
Newspapers, 134, 229, 368–369
Nonconformists, 59–60
North Carolina, colonial, 97, 112, 114, 115, 129, 140, 144, 148,; in Revolution, 218–219; and the Constitution, 242 (app., ii); University of, 342; slavery in, 373, 392; in the Civil War, 410, 430; later events in, 478, 479
North Dakota, 271, 457, 460
Northwest Territory, 231–233, 248
Nova Scotia, 156, 207, 348

Oberlin College, 343
Ogden, Utah, 455
Oglethorpe, James, 117–119
Ohio, under French rule, 149–158; as an Indian territory, 160; settlement of, 208, 232–234, 247–248; admitted to Union, 248; as a state, 307, 323, 342, 470, 505
Ohio Company, first, 150, 151; of 1787, 232–233
Oil, discovery of, 434, 477
Oklahoma, 272, 470, 483–484, 505
Omaha, 455, 458, 461, 473
Ordinance of 1787, 232
Oregon, explorations in, 273–274; question of, 295; claimed by Russia, 320; Hudson Bay Company in, 349, 350; American settlers in, 351, 352; annexed, 356; admitted to Union, 376; recent events in, 486–487, 505, 506
Otis, James, 162, 167

Pacific Ocean, 5–6
Paine, Thomas, 190
Panama Canal, 527–529
Pan-American Conference, 531
Panic of 1837, 338; of 1873, 456
Paper money, 205, 337, 338, 421
Parkman, Francis, 351
Parliament, English, 46, 59–60, 104, 127, 141, 165; Acts of, Sugar Act, 131–132; Sugar Act of 1764, 166; Stamp Act, 166–167; Townshend Acts, 169; Intolerable Acts, 174; Quebec Act, 174; Reform Acts, 329, 450
Parson's Cause, 162
Parties, see under party names
Pastorius, 94
Patroons, 78–79
Penn, William, 90–95 (with portrait)
Pennsylvania, settlement of, 90–95, 97; Germans in, 113; Scotch-Irish in, 114–115; education in, 134; colonial government, 140; struggle with French, 148, 156; Indian war, 160; resists Stamp Act, 167; during Revolution, 197, 200–201, 203–204, 215–216; slavery in, 254; early railroads, 335, 336, 337, 363; recent industries of, 463, 470
Perry, O. H., 288
Peru, 8, 319
Petroleum discovered, 434
Philadelphia, 96–97, 113, 121, 134, 168, 173, 200–201, 203, 238, 335, 363, 443, 473, 491, 503
Philadelphia Convention, 238–240
Philippine Islands, 159, 319, 524, 525–526, 532
Phonograph, 470
Pickens, Andrew, 218
Pickett, General, 422–423
Pierce, Franklin, app., v
Pike, Zebulon, 272–273
Pilgrims, 49–58
Pitt, William, 157–162, 168
Pittsburg Landing, battle of, 414
Pittsburgh, 149, 151, 158, 298, 303, 363, 468, 495
Pizarro (pē-zär′ ro), 8
Plantations, early, 43, 124, 125; spread of, 254, 314, 373; failure of system, 439, 475
Playground movement, 519–520
Plymouth, 49–58, 67
Pocahontas, 41
Polish immigrants, 492
Polk, James K., 352, 354–358
Polo, Marco, 2
Pontiac's War, 160
Pony Express, 435
Poor Richard's Almanac, 135
Population, of early Virginia, 47, 87; of Plymouth, 57; by 1700, 97–98; by 1750, 111; by 1783, 225; see appendix for census reports of 1790, etc.; at opening of Civil War, 400–401; later increase, 433; make up of present, 532
Port Royal, Acadia, 19, 99, 106
Port Royal, S.C., 410
Porter, Captain D. D., 291–292
Portland, Ore., 472
Porto Rico, 319, 524; area, app., viii
Post Office, 229, 242, 366
Presbyterians, 89, 136
Prescott, Colonel William, 183–184
Presidency, 239, 240, 241, 263, 324–325
Princeton, battle of, 198
Princeton College, 134
Printing, in the colonies, 134–135; rotary press, 368
Privateers, 206, 217
Protection, see Tariff
Providence, R.I., 64, 134, 297
Prussia, 149, 153, 451
Pulaski, 215
Pullman, Ill., 495–496
Puritans, 59–60, 62, 74, 87, 90, 137
Putnam, Israel, 174, 181

Quakers, 89, 90, 91, 111–112, 137, 191, 394
Quartering Act, 169
Quebec, 22, 158–159, 186, 199; see under Canada
Quebec Act, 174
Queen Anne's War, 105–106

Railroads, 334–337, 363–364, 400, 401–402, 403, 409, 454–456, 485
Raleigh (raw′ lĭ), Sir Walter, 13–14, 20
Ranches, 457–458

Randolph, John, 283
Recall, 505–506
Reconstruction, 439–443
Redemptioners, 112, 115–116
Reed, Major Walter, 526
Referendum, 505
Religious liberty, 265, 324
Representative system, 166, 329
Republican party, 384, 386, 387, 390, 391, 429, 442, 443, 508–510
Reservations, Indian, 456, 483
Revere, Paul, 178, 179
Rhode Island, settlement of, 63–64, 66; early education in, 134; religion, 136; colonial government of, 140, 143; in Revolution, 192–193; paper money of, 235; and the Constitution, 242, app., ii; factories in, 297
Rice, cultivation of, 125, 476–477
Richmond, Va., 44, 397, 402, 404, 427, 430, 433, 465, 481
Roads, 228, 304–305
Robertson, James, 209
Robinson, John, 50
Rochambeau (ro shŏn′ bō′), Count de, 219–220
Rockefeller Institution, 516
Rolfe, John, 45
Roman Catholics, 71, 74, 101–102, 136, 226–227
Roosevelt, Theodore, 510, 524, 530
Roosevelt dam, 488–489
Rough Riders, 524
Russia, 153, 277–278, 282, 284, 319–321, 447–448, 529

Sacramento, Cal., 358, 455
St. Augustine, 10
St. Lawrence River, 12
St. Louis, Mo., 270, 272, 303, 349, 363, 398, 413, 458, 472
St. Mary's, Md., 72
St. Paul, Minn., 461, 504
Salem, Mass., 61, 136–137
Salt Lake, Utah, 455
Samoan Islands, app., viii
San Diego, Cal., 226
San Francisco, 226, 355, 360
San Martin, General, 318–319
Santa Fé, 350
Santiago (sän-tē-ä gō), 524
Santo Domingo, 88, 266–267
Saratoga, battle of, 200
Savannah, Ga., 118, 218, 219, 429
"Scalawags," 441
Schenectady, 81, 105
Schools, in Virginia, 47; in New England, 67–69; colonial, 133–134; later, 340–343, 481, 513–520, 526
Schurz, Carl, 370, 502
Schuyler (skī′ler), General, 200
Scotch immigration, 113–114, 119, 136
Scott, Dred, 385
Scott, General W., 288, 357
Seattle, Wash., 486
Secession, 332, 391
Senate, 239, 240, 241, 506–507
Separatists, 49, 62
Servants, indentured, 43, 115–116; see Slavery
Servian immigrants, 492
Seven Years' War, 153, 159
Seward, W. H., 379, 390, 394, 448
Sewing machines, 369
Shafter, General, 524
Shays' Rebellion, 234
Shenandoah Valley, 113, 402, 417, 427–428
Sheridan, General, 428, 429
Sherman, J. S., app., viii
Sherman, General W. T., 425, 426, 428, 429, 430
Shiloh, battle of, 414
Shoe and Leather trade, 128
Short ballot, 504
Siberia, 319–320
Sioux, 456
Sitting Bull, 456
Slater, Samuel, 253, 254
Slavery, 12, 43, 47, 119, 254–255, 315, 346, 372–374, 376–388, 418–420, 438
Smith, Captain John, 23, 41–42 (portrait), 52, 53
Smuggling, 131, 160–161, 172–173
South, 122, 331, 371–374, 390, 435–443, 464, 475–481
South America, 318–321
South Carolina, colonial, 97, 115, 117, 118, 122, 125, 144, 148, 167, 168, 173; in Revolution, 207, 218–219; Nulli-

fication in, 332–333; first railroad in, 335; slavery in, 373; in the Civil War, 391, 430; after the War, 441
South Dakota, 460, 505
Spain, discoveries and exploration of, 3–12, 18, 21, 26, 88–89, 116; colonial policy of, 146; losses in Seven Years' War, 159; missions in California, 226–228, 354; gives up Louisiana, 266–268; loses American colonies, 318–321; war with, 522–524
Spice Islands, 2, 77
Spinning, 126, 250–252, 253, 299
Spoils System, 327, 500
Springfield, Mass., 65, 206, 235
"Squatter Sovereignty," 377
Stage-coaches, 228, 305–306
Standish, Miles, 51, 54
Stark, John, 181, 200
Stamp Act, 165–169
States, organization of, 193–194
Staunton, Va., 504
Steamboats, 302–303, 366–367, 467–468
Steam-engine, 251–252
Steel, 128, 466–467, 469
Stephens, A. H., 379, 391
Stephenson, George, 334–335
Steuben, Baron, 215
Stevens, Thaddeus, 439–440
Stevenson, Adlai E., app., viii
Stowe, Harriet B., 381
Strikes, 339, 495–496
Stuyvesant (stī' vĕ sănt), Peter, 83–84 (portrait)
Suffrage, 65, 323, 506
Sugar Acts, 131–132, 145, 161, 165, 166
Sumner, Charles, 379, 439–440, 446
Sumter, Fort, 395–397
Sumter, Thomas, 218
Supreme Court, 239, 240
Swedes, settlement by, 81

Tacoma, Wash., 486
Taft, W. H., 502, 510, 530–531
Taney, Chief Justice, 385
Tariff, early, 244–245; of 1816, 300–301; of 1828 and 1833, 331–333; recent, 509
Taxation, 131, 165, 244–245, 331–333, 421
Taylor, Zachary, 355–356, 378, 379, 380
Tea, tax on, 171–173
Technical High Schools, 515
Tecumseh (tĕ-kŭm' se), 282, 287
Telegraph, 365–366, 435, 464, 465
Telephone, 464
Tenement question, 493
Tennessee, settlement of, 209; admitted to Union, 248; as a state, 315, 323, 326; secedes, 392, 397; in the Civil War, 398, 414–415, 425; Reconstruction of, 437; industry in, 476
Tennessee River, 209, 403, 404, 414
Territories of the United States, Northwest, 231–233; Louisiana, 264–274; Florida, 318; Oregon, 349–352, 356; California, 356, 358–360; New Mexico, 358; Alaska, 447–448, 485
Texas, 36, 226; independence of, 345–348, 352; annexation of, 354–356, 358; in Civil War, 423; industry in, 476–477
Thanksgiving Day, 55, 56, 61
Thomas, General G. H., 425, 429
Threshing machines, 124, 368
Ticonderoga, 185
Tilden, S. J., 443
Tippecanoe, battle of, 282, 287
Tobacco, 45–46, 124, 130, 132, 162, 206–207
Toleration Act, 74
Tompkins, D. D., app., iii
Topeka, Kas., 383
Tories, 191–192
Toronto, 289
Town meeting, 140
Townshend Acts, 169–170
Trade, see Commerce, Fur Trade
Trade Unions, 339, 493–496
Trafalgar, battle of, 277
Treaties, Utrecht (1713), 106; Paris (1763), 159; Paris (1783), 221; Jay's, 258; Ghent (1814), 294; with Mexico, 358
Trent affair, 407
Trenton, battle of, 197
Troy, N.Y., 473
Trusts, 472–473
Turnpikes, 304
Tuskeegee Institute, 481
Tweed Ring, 501
Tyler, John, 352
Typewriter, 470

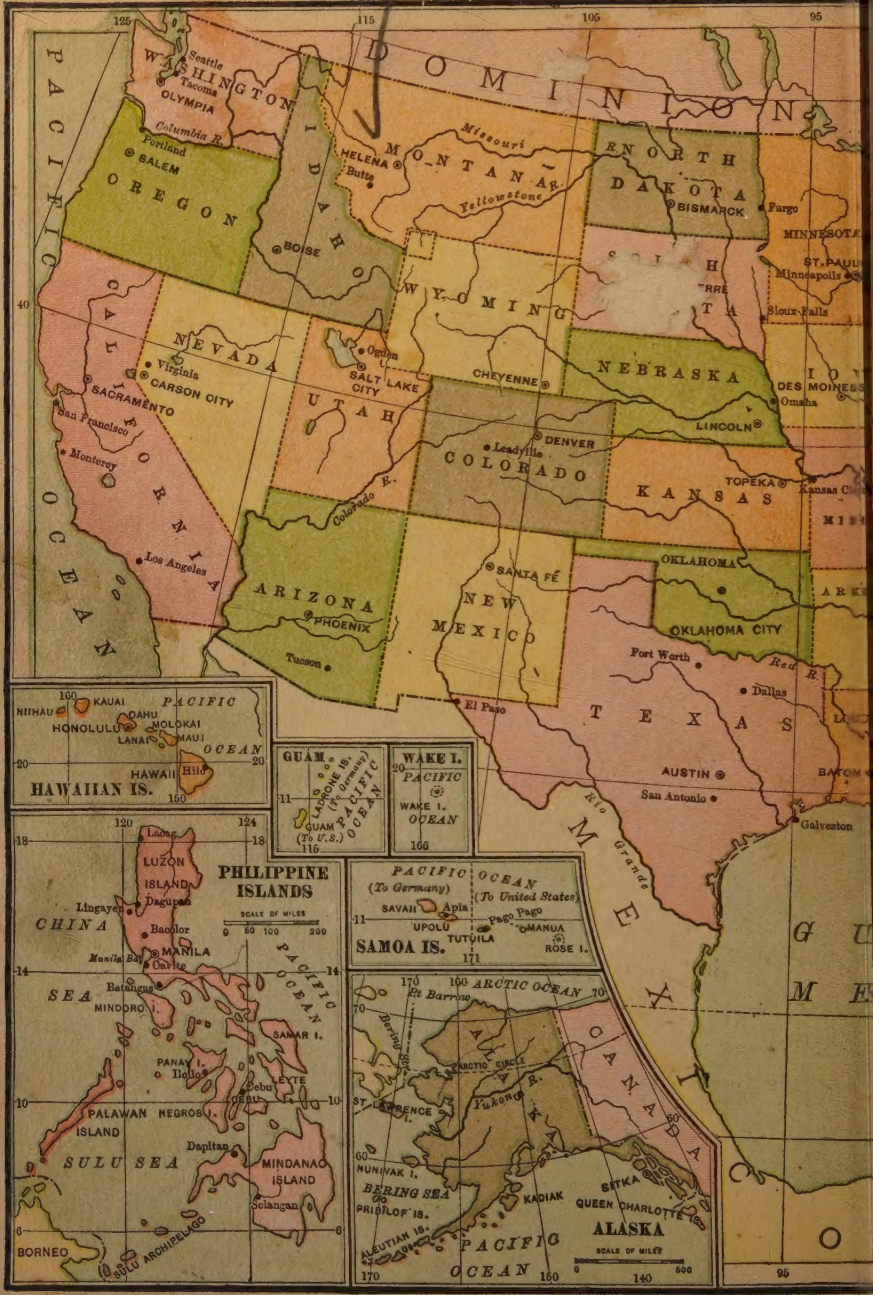
Uncle Tom's Cabin, 381
Underground Railroad, 380
Union Pacific Railroad, 454–455
United Brethren, 116
Universities, 342–343, 516–518
Utah, 360, 378, 380, 460, 488, 505, 506

Valley Forge, 204
Van Buren, Martin, 331, 340, 348, 377
Van Rensselaer, 79
Vanderbilt, "Commodore," 472
Venezuela, 318
Vermont, 248, 323
Vespucius, Americus, 7
Veto, 141, 239
Vicksburg, 403, 423
Victoria, Queen, 407
Vincennes, 211
Virginia, settlement of, 14, 20–22, 39–47, 87; Bacon's rebellion, 144; colonial industry in, 128, 129, 130; education in, 133; religion, 136, 265; conflict with French, 148, 150, 152–153, 154, 156; resists Stamp Act, 167; during Revolution, 172, 203, 219–220; land claims of, 231; ratifies Constitution, 242; debts of, 244; Resolutions of, 260; gives land for capital, 264; University of, 265, 343; slavery in, 265, 373; secedes, 392, 397; seat of War, 402, 407–410, 416–418, 427–428, 430; after War, 436, 478, 481
Vote, right to, 65, 323, 506

Wales, immigrants from, 92, 532
Waltham, Mass., 298
Wampum, 55
Warren, Joseph, 178
Washington, state of, 274, 356, 460, 486–487, 506
Washington, D.C., 244–245, 263–264, 293
Washington, Booker T., 481
Washington, George, ancestors of, 87; in Ohio, 151–152; in French and Indian War, 155–156, 157; resists parliamentary measures, 169, 174; commander-in-chief, 183, 184–185; captures Boston, 186–187; later campaigns, 196–199, 200–201, 204, 219–220; between 1783 and 1789, 222, 230, 234, 238; Presidency, 242–248, 256–259; interest in a National Road, 305, 308; portraits, 185, 243
Water power, 479, 488–489
Waterbury, Ct., 206, 473
Watt, James, 251–252
Wayne, Anthony, 248
Weaving, 126–127, 250–252, 299
Webster, Daniel, 328, 332, 352, 378–379
Welland Canal, 349
Wellington, Duke of, 286
West Indies, 77–78, 87, 131, 161, 206, 215, 235, 257, 261, 266–267, 278, 526, 527, 529
West Point, 216, 404
West Virginia, 398, 408, 470
Western Reserve, 231
Whale fishery, 132
Wheeler, W. A., app., vii
Wheeling, W.Va., 234, 305, 363
Whig party, 328, 378, 384–385
Whiskey Rebellion, 245
White, Father, 72
Whitney, Eli, 254
Wilderness, battle of, 427
Willard, Emma, 343
William and Mary, king and queen of England, 104–105; college, 134
Williams, Roger, 63, 64, 74
Will's Creek, 150
Wilson, Henry, app., vii
Wilson, James, 238, 240
Wilson, Woodrow, 510
Winthrop, John, 60 (portrait), 61
Wisconsin, 370–371, 381, 515–516, 518
Witchcraft, 136–137
Wolfe, James, 158–159
Woman Suffrage, 506
Woolen Act, 127
Writs of Assistance, 161–162
Wyoming, state, 460, 487, 488, 506
Wyoming Massacre, 210

Yale College, 134
Yellow fever, 526
Yorktown, capture of, 220

Zuñi (zō' nyē) Indians, 10, 29, 30


DOMINION
PACIFIC OCEAN
WASHINGTON
Seattle
Tacoma
OLYMPIA
Columbia R.
Portland
SALEM
OREGON
IDAHO
BOISE
MONTANA
HELENA
Butte
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
NORTH DAKOTA
BISMARCK
Fargo
MINNESOTA
ST. PAUL
Minneapolis
SOUTH DAKOTA
Sioux Falls
WYOMING
CHEYENNE
NEBRASKA
Omaha
DES MOINES
LINCOLN
NEVADA
Virginia
CARSON CITY
SACRAMENTO
San Francisco
Monterey
CALIFORNIA
Los Angeles
Ogden
SALT LAKE CITY
UTAH
DENVER
Leadville
COLORADO
Colorado R.
TOPEKA
KANSAS
Kansas City
OKLAHOMA
OKLAHOMA CITY
ARIZONA
PHOENIX
Tucson
SANTA FÉ
NEW MEXICO
Fort Worth
Red R.
Dallas
El Paso
TEXAS
AUSTIN
San Antonio
Galveston
Rio Grande
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
HAWAIIAN IS.
KAUAI
NIIHAU
OAHU
HONOLULU
MOLOKAI
LANAI
MAUI
HAWAII
Hilo
PACIFIC OCEAN
GUAM
(To U.S.)
LADRONE IS.
(To Germany)
WAKE I.
(To U.S.)
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200
LUZON ISLAND
Laoag
Dagupan
Lingayen
Baguio
Bacolor
MANILA
Manila Bay
Cavite
Batangas
MINDORO I.
SAMAR I.
PANAY I.
Iloilo
LEYTE
Cebu
CEBU
NEGROS I.
PALAWAN ISLAND
Dapitan
SULU SEA
MINDANAO ISLAND
Sclangan
BORNEO
SULU ARCHIPELAGO
CHINA SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
(To Germany)
(To United States)
SAVAII
Apia
Pago Pago
UPOLU
TUTUILA
MANUA
ROSE I.
SAMOA IS.
ARCTIC OCEAN
Pt Barrow
Beaufort Sea
ARCTIC CIRCLE
St. Lawrence I.
Yukon R.
CANADA
NUNIVAK I.
BERING SEA
KADIAK
SITKA
QUEEN CHARLOTTE I.
PRIBILOF IS.
ALEUTIAN IS.
ALASKA
SCALE OF MILES
0 500

MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
AND ITS POSSESSIONS
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
NOTE: The maps of Hawaii, Samoa, Guam and Wake Is. same scale as map of Philippine Islands.
CANADA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CARIBBEAN SEA
GULF OF MEXICO
BAHAMA ISLANDS
CUBA
HAITI
SANTO DOMINGO
JAMAICA
PORTO RICO (To U.S.)
VIRGIN ISLANDS (To U.S.)
MAINE
VERMONT
N.H.
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
N.J.
DEL.
MD.
OHIO
INDIANA
ILLINOIS
MICHIGAN
WISCONSIN
MINNESOTA
IOWA
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
ARKANSAS
TEXAS
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
St. Lawrence R.
Detroit R.
Ohio R.
Tropic of Cancer
Longitude West 85 from Greenwich 75
C. C. PETERS & SON ENGRS., BOSTON.